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- Site restrictions are included in the solid waste regulations of 30 states. Examples of site restrictions are prohibiting solid waste disposal facilities from violating local zoning laws, banning placement of a new facility in a 100-year floodplain, and prohibiting waste placement unless there is a minimum depth to ground water. Column 4, "site restrictions," shows whether a state's regulations include restrictions on a disposal facility's location.
- Five states' regulations (Florida, Louisiana, Colorado, Washington, and Maine) call for all solid waste facilities to have a clay or synthetic liner. In addition, six states' regulations (Kentucky, Alabama, Tennessee, Wisconsin, New York, and Mississippi) call for the state permitting authority to determine, on a case-by-case basis, whether a liner is required. Column 5, "liners," shows whether the state's regulations include a requirement for liners at solid waste disposal facilities.
- Leachate control systems are collection devices placed under wastes in landfills or impoundments to collect waste leachate. Regulations in 12 states call for leachate control systems in all solid waste disposal facilities; the regulations of an additional 8 states allow leachate control systems to be required on a case-by-case basis. Column 6, "leachate control systems," shows whether a state's regulations include a requirement for leachate control systems at solid waste disposal facilities.
- The solid waste regulations of 17 states call for ground-water monitoring systems at all solid waste disposal facilities. The regulations of an additional 11 states specify that ground-water monitoring may be required on a case-by-case basis. Column 7, "ground-water monitoring," shows whether a state's regulations include requirements for ground-water monitoring wells at solid waste disposal facilities.
- Twenty-six states have solid waste regulations that call for closure and post-closure care. Column 8, "closure conditions," shows whether a state's regulations include requirements for closure and post-closure care for disposal facilities that have ceased operating.

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- Thirteen states have solid waste regulations that include a financial assurance requirement. Column 9, "financial assurance," shows whether a state's regulations include a requirement that a solid waste facility operator post a bond or participate in a waste management fund to ensure the long-term viability of safe disposal facilities.

The management of waste in surface impoundments, a common practice for coal-burning utility plants, is often only indirectly addressed by state solid waste regulations. Only six states -- Louisiana, Colorado, New York, Washington, Oregon, and New Hampshire -- have solid waste regulations that include requirements exclusively for surface impoundments. The solid waste regulations of Indiana, Tennessee, Kentucky, North Carolina, Georgia, and Missouri exclude surface impoundments and defer to state water laws for regulatory authority. The water regulations in these states do not include any design and operating requirements for surface impoundments. However, according to the USWAG report, the water agencies in Missouri do regulate the design and operation of impoundments -- requiring lining and ground-water monitoring. According to the same report, state water agencies in Pennsylvania also regulate the design and operation of surface impoundments.

The regulatory requirements discussed above refer to regulations explicitly promulgated by the states for waste disposal facilities. However, state solid and hazardous waste regulations generally allow state authorities a large degree of discretion in designing site-by-site disposal standards that are more strict than those specified in the solid waste regulations. Many states' regulations allow local governments to design their own waste disposal regulations, provided that the standards set forth in the state solid waste regulations are enforced. Interviews with several state environmental

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officials and the summaries in the USWAG report indicate that in some states coal combustion utility wastes are regulated more stringently than what is required by the solid waste regulations. For example, the solid waste regulations in Texas have few design and operating requirements and exempt on-site disposal from the permit requirement. It is, however, the policy of the state environmental agency to provide guidelines for on-site facilities as well as off-site facilities, and to require ground-water monitoring. (For more information on individual state regulations, see Appendix C.)

4.1.3 Summary

The regulation of coal combustion waste is generally carried out under state solid, not hazardous, waste regulations. These solid waste regulations vary from state to state. Based on the requirements included under each state's solid waste regulations (as shown in Exhibit 4-1), it is difficult to generalize about the extent of state regulation of coal combustion wastes; some states have very stringent regulations and/or policies, such as those that impose design and operating standards and on-site and off-site permit requirements, whereas other states have few requirements or exempt on-site disposal from regulation. For a number of states, requirements are determined on a case-by-case basis. This allows the states to take climatic, geologic, and other site-specific characteristics into account for each waste management facility.

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4.2 AVAILABLE WASTE MANAGEMENT METHODS AND CURRENT PRACTICES

There are a variety of methods available for managing coal combustion wastes. Wastes may be land managed in impoundments, landfills, mines, and quarries or may be reused for various purposes. This section describes types of land management of coal combustion wastes and their prevalence within the ten EPA-designated regions of the United States. The second part of the section reviews available waste management technology alternatives (such as lining, leachate collection, and pre-disposal treatment), and explores how these different technologies are currently used in different parts of the U.S. and how these technologies have changed over time. The third part of this section describes the potential for ocean disposal to be used to manage coal combustion wastes. The final section describes coal combustion waste recycling. The waste management methods discussed in this section apply to high-volume and low-volume utility waste streams since these wastes are often co-disposed in the same facility.⁶

4.2.1 Land Management of Coal Combustion Wastes

80 percent of coal combustion waste is treated, stored, and/or disposed by means of land management, with the remaining 20 percent recycled (see Section 4.2.4). This section describes three common methods of land management currently used for coal combustion wastes. It also presents data on use of these management methods geographically and how land management practices have changed over time.

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4.2.1.1 Types of Coal Combustion Waste Land Management

Three types of utility waste land management facilities are commonly used today:⁷

- **Surface Impoundments** -- often called wet ponds, in which coal combustion wastes are disposed as a slurry or sludge, allowing solids to settle and accumulate at the bottom of the pond.
- **Landfills** -- facilities used for disposing of dry or dewatered coal combustion wastes; landfills are typically managed like an earth-moving operation in which the wastes are disposed in the excavated area.
- **Mines and Quarries** -- abandoned pits in which wet or dry wastes are disposed.

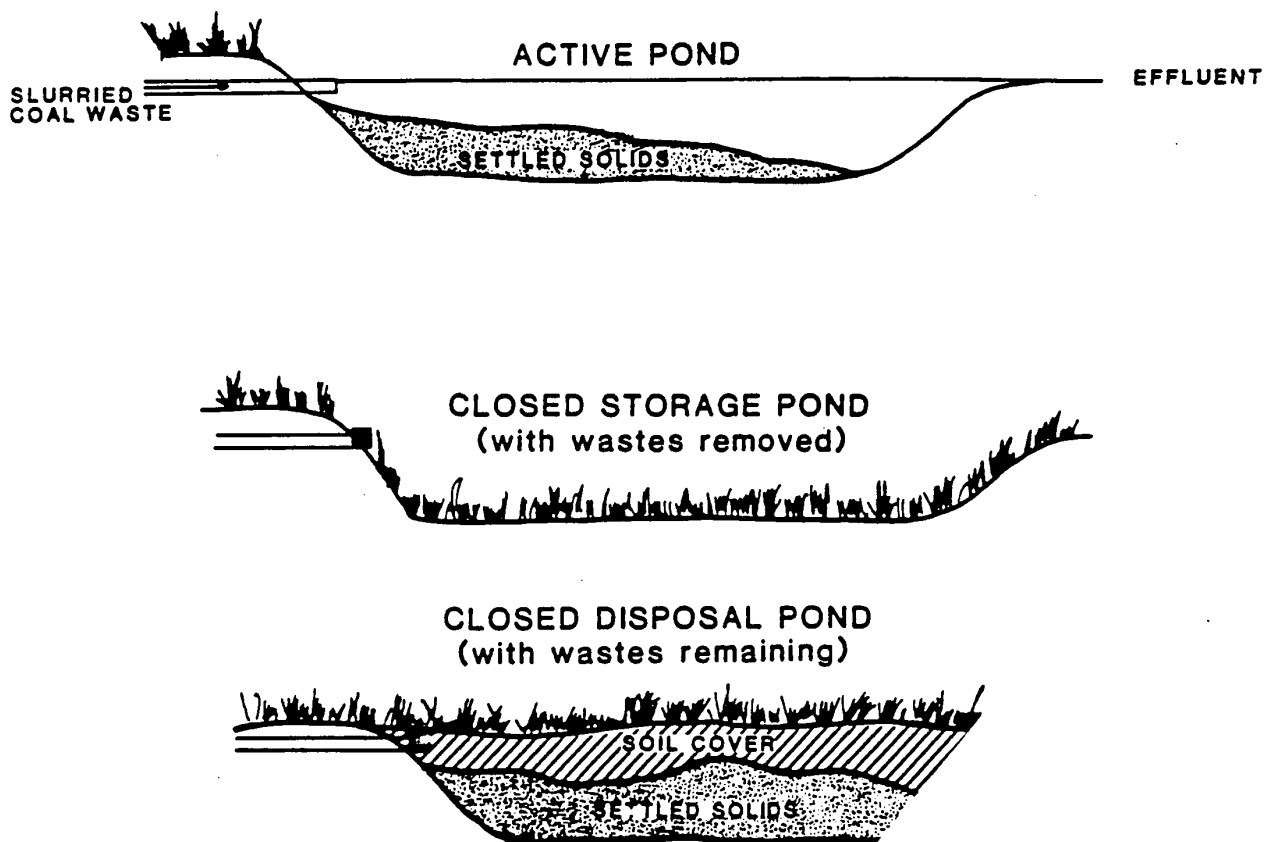
Surface Impoundments

Surface impoundments are used to treat, store, and dispose of coal combustion wastes. Slurried coal ash and other wastes are introduced into the impoundment; the solids settle out and gradually accumulate at the bottom of the pond, leaving relatively clear water at the surface, which is often discharged to surface water. By using this method, certain types of waste treatment, such as neutralization of acids, can be accomplished concurrently with disposal. Exhibit 4-2 illustrates the different stages in the life of a typical impoundment.

Historically, wet ponding has been one of the most widely used disposal methods for coal ash and FGD wastes because it is simple and easily implemented. In 1983, about 80 percent of the waste management facilities used

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EXHIBIT 4-2
TYPICAL SURFACE IMPOUNDMENT (POND) STAGES



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by utilities employed some type of sedimentation treatment pond; most of these treatment ponds were used directly as final disposal impoundments (about 45 percent of all facilities; see section 4.2.1.2). The remainder of the impoundments were used only for treatment and temporary storage of waste, in part to comply with the National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System established in Section 402 of the Clean Water Act.⁸ In recent years, some state and local regulations concerning wet ponds have become more restrictive, requiring liners and ground-water monitoring at these facilities. These types of restrictions will tend to increase wet ponding costs, making it less attractive as a disposal option.⁹

I Utilities may use a single pond or a series of ponds to facilitate the settling of solids. Chemicals or different wastes can be added at different points in the ponding system to produce desired chemical reactions, such as metals precipitation or neutralization. Fly ash, bottom ash, and FGD wastes are usually sluiced with water to the impoundments. The ash solids may be allowed to accumulate in a pond until it is full, or the pond may be drained and the solids dredged periodically and taken to an alternative disposal site, such as a landfill.

Pond designs vary widely depending upon local site conditions, the regulations that govern design of the impoundment, and whether bottom ash, fly ash, FGD wastes, or a combination of wastes are to be disposed and/or treated in the ponds. Because utility wastes are generated in large volumes, a pond's total surface area may cover up to several hundred acres, and the initial depth of a pond may be anywhere between 10 and 100 feet.¹⁰ The total

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volume of an impoundment system depends on several factors, including the total quantity of ash to be disposed (both dry and slurried volumes), the liquid and solid retention times, the type and degree of treatment performed, and the desired quality of the discharge or effluent. The number of ponds in a system and the specific uses to which each is put can also influence the total volume required for wet ponding.

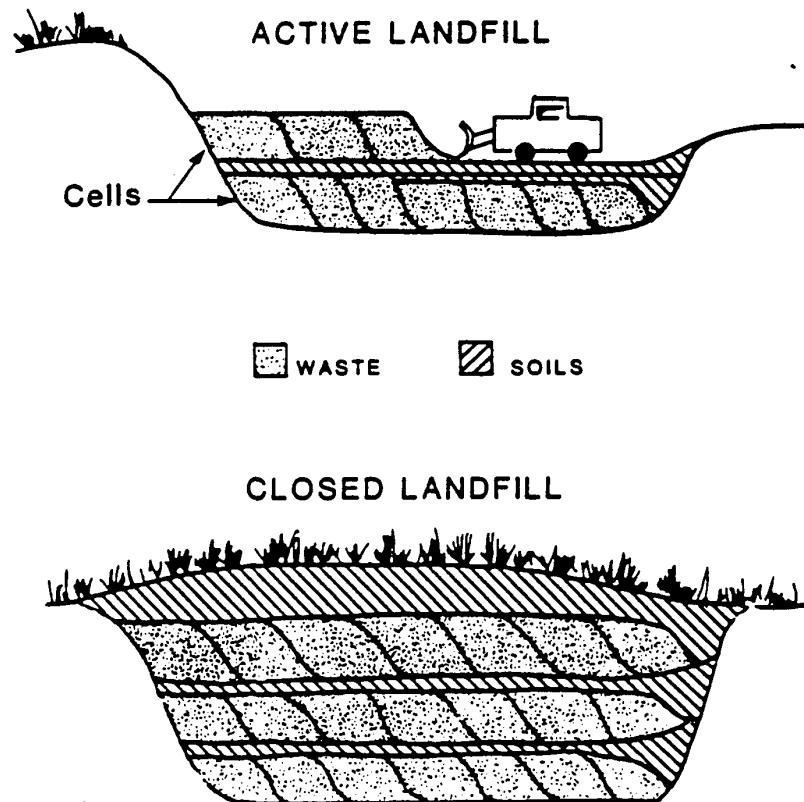
Landfills

Landfills are used to dispose of coal combustion wastes such as fly ash, bottom ash, and FGD sludges when they are produced or after they are dredged from surface impoundments that are used as interim treatment facilities. The typical design of a landfill during its active stage and after closure is depicted in Exhibit 4-3.

Landfills are constructed in a somewhat similar fashion to surface impoundments. Excavation is required in both cases, but may be ongoing throughout a landfill's active life because most large landfills are divided into sections, or cells, of which only one or two may be active at any given time. A landfill cell is defined as the area (up to several hundred square feet) over which waste is placed to a depth ranging from one to ten feet (industry practice refers to each layer of cells as a lift). Several lifts may be stacked atop one another in the landfill. A cell may be open for periods ranging from a day to a few weeks, after which it is usually covered with six inches to several feet of soil. The waste and soils are often sprinkled with water throughout the fill operation to mitigate potential dust problems.

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EXHIBIT 4-3
DIAGRAMS OF ACTIVE AND CLOSED LANDFILLS



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Excavation may be initiated in phases; for example, as one cell is filled, another is prepared for waste placement, while yet another is being excavated. Roads are built in to provide access for waste-hauling equipment as well as for the earth-moving and earth-compacting equipment that prepares the waste after it has been placed in the landfill cell. After a cell is filled, the access road frequently becomes part of the containment system as a wall separating one cell from the next.

Landfilling of coal ash and FGD sludges has increased over the past few years as the costs of wet ponding have increased (see section 4.2.1.2). Most electric utilities that use landfills currently dispose their high-volume wastes in Subtitle D (non-hazardous waste) landfills. Landfills in compliance with RCRA Subtitle C standards may be used occasionally for disposal of small quantities of hazardous waste.¹¹

Mine and Quarry Disposal

Some utilities use abandoned mines or quarries as ash and FGD sludge disposal sites. Abandoned mine disposal includes the use of mine shafts as well as strip-mined areas. Wastes disposed to abandoned mine shafts can be dumped into the shaft or carefully placed within the mine to fill the areas remaining after the coal or other material has been removed. Strip-mined areas may be filled like a landfill. Regulatory agencies may consider wastes disposed in this manner to pose less of a threat than the runoff and potential contamination from the abandoned mine itself.¹² In some cases, a chemical reaction between the waste and the mine runoff and leachate might actually

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reduce the toxicity of the runoff (for example, an alkaline sludge could neutralize acid mine drainage). However, the likelihood of such a mitigative effect is very site-specific and would not necessarily occur uniformly throughout any given mine disposal site.

In a few cases, utility wastes, particularly acidic wastes, have been disposed in quarries. Limestone quarries are considered the best setting for this type of disposal because they provide a natural acid buffering capacity and the capacity for the metals present in the waste to be attenuated by chemically combining with materials in the quarry.¹³ Quarry disposal of wastes works well for lime or limestone slurry wastes, which harden to form a concrete-type floor at the bottom of the quarry, thereby plugging any potential leakage paths. The probability of achieving success with this method must be evaluated on a case-by-case basis prior to its use.

4.2.1.2 Prevalence of Various Land Management Methods

Use of the waste management methods described above can vary from plant to plant and, in some cases, among individual generating units at a single power plant. This section presents information on how these utility waste management methods are employed nationwide and within EPA regions. It also discusses how these utility waste management methods have changed over time. The emphasis is on surface impoundments and landfills because these two waste management methods are the most commonly-used utility waste management practices in the United States.

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The information presented in this section was derived from the Edison Electric Institute Power Statistics Database, currently maintained by the Utility Data Institute. This database contains information on power plant characteristics for all electric utility generating plants in the U.S. These data include number of power plants, number of generating units at each power plant site, type of fuel, plant capacity, as well as other information. It also contains information on the type of waste management methods currently used by power plants throughout the country, including type of disposal facility and whether the wastes were disposed at the power plant or in off-site facilities. Because each generating unit at a power plant may have its own waste management practice, the database gives waste disposal information for all generating units.

Data were not available for all generating units in the database. When information is not available, the extent of data coverage is indicated. In some instances the number of generating units on which no information was available was quite high. Although EPA recognizes the possibility of some statistical bias due to lack of data on some generating units, this database is the most comprehensive source available on utility waste management practices. EPA has no reason to believe that such bias is serious enough to call into question conclusions drawn in this analysis.

Exhibit 4-4 displays, for each of the ten EPA regions of the U.S. (see Exhibit 2-4 for a map of these regions), the number of generating units whose waste is managed in surface impoundments, in landfills, or mines. The most

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EXHIBIT 4-4

**UTILITY WASTE MANAGEMENT FACILITIES BY EPA REGION
(number of generating units) a/**

<u>EPA Region</u>	<u>Surface Impoundments</u>	<u>Landfills</u>	<u>Minefills</u>	<u>Other/ Unknown</u>	<u>Total</u>
1	1	10	0	7	18
2	0	22	0	17	39
3	33	103	1	7	144
4	195	55	0	45	295
5	160	198	4	130	492
6	19	48	2	18	87
7	55	61	1	32	149
8	9	56	23	21	109
9	11	16	0	7	34
10	0	9	2	0	11
U.S. Total	483	578	33	284	1378

Source: Utility Data Institute Power Statistics Database

a/ The data are provided by generating unit because each generating unit at a power plant may have its own management facility. A generating unit typically refers to a single boiler, turbine, and generator set at a power plant. A power plant may have more than one generating unit at the site. For the database used here, data were available for 1,378 generating units located at 514 power plants.

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common types of facilities used by the electric utility industry are surface impoundments and landfills:

- Landfills are the most common type of disposal facility used. Of the 1,094 generating units for which data were available (for 284 units, type of waste disposal method was unknown), 578 units (about 53 percent) used landfills for waste disposal. Landfills are used throughout the United States, with the largest number (over one-half of all landfills) located in the high coal-consuming, industrialized areas of the East and Midwest (Regions 3 and 5).
- Surface impoundments are also commonly used; approximately 44 percent of the generating units (483 out of 1,094) used this type of management facility. Of the 483 generating units that place wastes in surface impoundments, nearly 75 percent are located in Regions 4 and 5. (In the past, access to abundant, inexpensive supplies of water in these Regions often made it economical to use this management option.)
- Mine disposal is used for about three percent of all generating units (33 units out of 1,094). This disposal technique is used most frequently in the western U.S., particularly Region 8. Power plants in this area are often located at or near the coal mine that is supplying the plant. Since the coal mine is located nearby, disposal of waste in the mine is often economic.

When managing coal combustion wastes, electric utilities may treat, store, or dispose of the wastes at the power plant or at facilities located off-site. EPA could not determine from the data available how far the wastes are transported when managed off-site, although the cost of transporting the wastes would tend to encourage disposal near the power plant. A summary of industry practices is provided in Exhibit 4-5, which shows for each EPA region, by type of facility, whether the wastes are managed on-site or off-site.

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EXHIBIT 4-5

LOCATION OF UTILITY WASTE MANAGEMENT FACILITIES:
ON-SITE VERSUS OFF-SITE
(number of generating units)*

<u>EPA Region</u>	<u>On-Site</u>	<u>Off-Site</u>	<u>Unknown</u>	<u>Total</u>
1				
Surface Impoundments	1	0	0	1
Landfills	0	8	2	10
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>7</u>
Total	1	8	9	18
2				
Surface Impoundments	0	0	0	0
Landfills	3	18	1	22
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>17</u>
Total	3	18	18	39
3				
Surface Impoundments	25	3	5	33
Landfills	62	37	4	103
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>
Total	87	41	16	144
4				
Surface Impoundments	186	4	5	195
Landfills	26	8	21	55
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>45</u>	<u>45</u>
Total	212	12	71	295
5				
Surface Impoundments	141	5	14	160
Landfills	41	140	17	198
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>128</u>	<u>134</u>
Total	182	151	159	492
6				
Surface Impoundments	18	0	1	19
Landfills	36	3	9	48
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>20</u>
Total	54	9	24	87

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EXHIBIT 4-5 (continued)

LOCATION OF UTILITY WASTE MANAGEMENT FACILITIES:
ON-SITE VERSUS OFF-SITE
(number of generating units)*

<u>EPA Region</u>	<u>On-Site</u>	<u>Off-Site</u>	<u>Unknown</u>	<u>Total</u>
7				
Surface Impoundments	42	0	13	55
Landfills	20	26	15	61
Other/Unknown	<u>7</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>33</u>
Total	69	27	53	149
8				
Surface Impoundments	6	2	1	9
Landfills	28	11	17	56
Other/Unknown	<u>2</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>44</u>
Total	36	36	37	109
9				
Surface Impoundments	9	2	0	11
Landfills	16	0	0	16
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>7</u>
Total	25	2	7	34
10				
Surface Impoundments	0	0	0	0
Landfills	5	4	0	9
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>
Total	5	6	0	11
Total U.S.				
Surface Impoundments	428	16	39	483
Landfills	237	255	86	578
Other/Unknown	<u>9</u>	<u>39</u>	<u>269</u>	<u>317</u>
Total	674	310	394	1378

* The data are provided by generating unit because each generating unit at a power plant may have its own management facility. A generating unit typically refers to a single boiler, turbine, and generator set at a power plant. A power plant may have more than one generating unit at the site. For the database used here, data were available for 1,378 generating units located at 514 power plants.

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- Nearly 70 percent of all generating units in the U.S. manage their coal combustion wastes on-site (based on information for 984 units, 674 units dispose on-site). About two-thirds of the on-site facilities are surface impoundments; most of the other on-site facilities are landfills.
- Landfills are used for about 95 percent of all off-site disposal in the U.S. This is not surprising considering that surface impoundments are typically used when wastes are transported as a wet slurry; the cost of disposal could become prohibitive if a utility transported the slurry off-site.
- Coal combustion waste management practices also differ by region:
 - In the Northeast (Regions 1 and 2), where few coal-fired generating units are located, management tends to occur off-site in landfills.
 - The highest percentage of on-site management is found in the South (Region 4), where about 95 percent of all units manage their waste on-site (212 units, based on information from 224 units). On-site management is common because utilities in this region often use surface impoundments, which are typically located at the power plant.
 - In the Rockies and northern Great Plains area (Region 8), most of the off-site disposal (23 of 36 units) occurs in mines that are generally adjacent to the power plant.

These trends in utility waste management methods have been changing in recent years, with a shift towards greater use of disposal in landfills located on-site. For example, for generating units built since 1975, nearly 65 percent currently dispose of coal combustion wastes in landfills, compared with just over 50 percent for units constructed before 1975. Similarly, over 80 percent of all units built since 1975 use

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on-site management facilities, compared with just under 65 percent of all units built before 1975 that manage wastes on-site.

4.2.2 Alternative Waste Management Technologies

Section 4.2.1 described the types of land management facilities used by utilities and patterns of use. This section describes the additional technologies that utilities may employ at the facilities described above in order to reduce potential environmental risk associated with waste management. For example, some utilities use liner systems for impoundments and landfills, leachate collection systems, and ground-water monitoring systems to control and monitor waste constituent migration. Pre-treatment technologies, by altering physical and chemical properties, can also render wastes more amenable for certain disposal methods. This section also presents data on the prevalence of these various technologies. The alternative technologies discussed in this section, although not necessarily the same as technologies required for RCRA Subtitle C facilities, may be required by current state regulations (described in Section 4.1) and could be more widely used in the future to further mitigate potential environmental impacts at utility waste disposal sites not currently employing these technologies.

4.2.2.1 Installation of Liners

Until recently, most surface impoundments and landfills used for utility waste management have been simple, unlined systems. Lining is

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becoming a more common practice, however, as concern over potential ground-water contamination from "leaky ponds" and, to a lesser extent, from landfills has increased. Some waste management facilities use one or more impermeable synthetic liners; some are lined with one or more layers of low-permeable clay¹⁴; and some use a combination of clay and synthetic liners.

Synthetic Liners

Several dozen manufacturers and distributors supply impermeable synthetic liners. The most common materials of construction for these liners include polyvinyl chloride (PVC) and high-density polyethylene (HDPE), although several other impermeable synthetics have also been used. Liners may be reinforced with fibers to increase strength and decrease the likelihood of punctures. The liners can be purchased in standard thicknesses that range from 10 mils to 100 mils,¹⁵ or can be made to order. Most liner installations will include protective geotextile fabric above and/or below the impermeable synthetic liner to minimize further the potential for puncture.

Preparation of the site prior to installation of a synthetic liner is similar to that which occurs before clay liner construction. However, more care must be taken to smooth out the surfaces to eliminate any peaks and cavities on the disposal facility floor that could cause a puncture of the liner material. Consequently, surface preparation costs are greater than those for clay liners. Excavation costs are usually less, however,

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because the thinner synthetic liners allow shallower excavation (i.e., the additional excavation required to install a clay liner that is several feet thick can be avoided if a much thinner synthetic liner is installed).

The liner itself, which comes rolled or folded in large pieces, is laid in the field and sealed along the seams by heat or solvent fusion techniques; the seams may be field tested at spot checkpoints. The liner is usually covered with a foot or more of soil to protect it from puncture and to keep it in place during construction of the disposal facility. The edges of the liner at the tops of the dikes or landfill cell walls must be well secured to prevent the liner from pulling out and shifting due to the mass of the wastes placed in the impoundment or landfill. Some facilities are double lined and often contain a leachate collection system located in a soil or sand layer between the two liners.

Among the limitations to the use of synthetic liners is their susceptibility to tear and puncture. This is of particular concern in a single-lined impoundment because of the opportunity for liquids to seep through a single tear. Synthetic liners are also susceptible to degradation by certain waste materials. Acidic wastes, for example, can degrade some synthetic liner materials. As with clay liners, waste/liner compatibility testing should be performed to ensure that the disposed wastes will not weaken or permeate the liner. Additionally, because the seams of a synthetic liner are frequently weaker than the liner itself, they may pull apart under stress (e.g., large mass loadings or wave

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action). Finally, dredging of synthetically-lined impoundments must be done cautiously, sometimes at very significant expense.

Synthetic liners, unlike clay liners (described below), are impermeable. Another advantage is the ease of repairing an exposed, damaged impoundment liner. A tear or puncture can be patched and seamed, and an impoundment put back into service, relatively quickly. (To repair subsurface damage, however, the impoundment must be wholly or partially drained.) Another advantage to using synthetic liners is that because of manufacturer quality control, a facility owner can be fairly certain that each liner sheet is as impermeable as the next. Clay is expensive to transport and in areas of the country where clay soils are scarce, a synthetic liner system may prove to be the less expensive option.

Clay Liners

The installation of a clay liner in a surface impoundment or landfill entails several steps. First, the site must be excavated or graded to a level below the design elevation of the facility floor. Many facilities take advantage of natural low areas or abandoned ponds to minimize excavation costs. The excavated earth can be used to build up the dike walls for the impoundment or to build containing berms within the landfill. Occasionally, soil must be brought to the construction site to raise the dikes to the design height.

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Once the floor and dikes or berms have been prepared, the clay liner is laid in 6- to 9-inch lifts; its final thickness will be between 1 foot and 8 feet. Each lift is individually compacted before the next one is laid, thereby providing effective compaction and minimizing leakage potential. Field testing of the clay for permeability and other pertinent characteristics is sometimes performed during construction to provide quality assurance. Before the impoundment or landfill can be used, the liner is visually inspected for flaws; non-contaminated water may also be piped to the pond to assure that the liner is sufficiently impermeable.

One of the primary concerns about the use of clay liners is whether the entire clay liner meets thickness and permeability requirements. If weather conditions during liner construction are arid and hot, the liner may dry out and crack, causing localized areas of leakage. If conditions are wet or the clay is too moist, clay compaction may never be sufficient to achieve the necessary low permeability. The clays used as liner materials vary in the degree to which they are compatible with the wastes placed in the facility. Laboratory tests, in which the proposed liner material is exposed to the wastes intended for management, should be conducted for each facility to ensure that components of the waste material will not unduly alter the permeability of the clay used as liner material. If the chemical characteristics of the generated waste were to change over time, then the tests would need to be repeated to determine what effect the altered waste stream would have on the clay liner.

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An advantage of clay liners is their potential for chemical, particularly cation, attenuation. The chemical structure of clay allows its use as an exchange site for metallic cations and other ions that might gradually seep out of the facility. Such exchange further reduces the opportunities for migration of waste constituents to the ground water. For facilities with fairly ready access to clays, the capital and construction costs associated with the use of a clay liner, even one that is several feet thick, may be substantially lower than those associated with the use of a synthetic liner.

Composite Liners

Many waste management facilities in industries currently subject to RCRA Subtitle C requirements are installing liner systems that combine both clay liner and synthetic liner technologies. Most commonly, an impoundment or landfill will be lined with 2-4 feet of impermeable clay, which is then prepared for placement of a synthetic liner. The synthetic liner may be covered with 1-2 feet of sand to serve as drainage for a leak detection system. Some facilities may then add another 1- to 2-foot layer of clay, which is again prepared for placement of the upper synthetic liner. In landfills, another leachate collection system is usually placed above this upper liner.

The composite synthetic/clay liner system offers a combination of advantages over single-material liners. A composite liner has some of the advantages provided by synthetic liners, such as factory quality control

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and ease of repair (for the upper liner), as well as the advantage of clay's propensity for attenuating escaped ions. Furthermore, use of multiple-liner materials reduces the likelihood that waste material will leak into the ground water because of chemical incompatibility between a waste and a single liner material. In general, the more layers of impermeable liner material that are used, the more efficient containment of liquids will be, thus reducing the likelihood of a release of waste material.

The biggest drawback of the composite synthetic/clay liner system is the cost of installation. Utility waste landfills are very large (up to 100 acres or more), and a liner large enough to cover such a area could be very expensive. In areas where labor costs are high and clay is unavailable locally and must be transported long distances, these costs would be magnified.

Frequency of Liner Use

Some electric utilities have installed liners to retard the flow of leachate from the waste disposal facility to the surrounding area. Exhibit 4-6 shows the extent to which electric utilities are currently using this technology.

- About 25 percent of all generating units in the U.S. for which data were available (139 of 580 units) have installed some type of liner. There are no available data on the material used to construct these liners or if more than one liner has been installed at the disposal facility.

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EXHIBIT 4-6

INSTALLATION OF LINERS FOR LEACHATE CONTROL
AT UTILITY WASTE MANAGEMENT FACILITIES
(number of generating units)*

<u>EPA Region</u>	<u>Unlined</u>	<u>Lined</u>	<u>Unknown</u>	<u>Total</u>
1				
Surface Impoundments	0	0	1	1
Landfills	0	0	10	10
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>7</u>
Total	0	0	18	18
2				
Surface Impoundments	0	0	0	0
Landfills	1	14	7	22
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>17</u>
Total	1	14	24	39
3				
Surface Impoundments	17	2	14	33
Landfills	17	7	79	103
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>8</u>
Total	34	9	101	144
4				
Surface Impoundments	153	3	39	195
Landfills	14	7	34	55
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>45</u>	<u>45</u>
Total	167	10	118	295
5				
Surface Impoundments	90	20	50	160
Landfills	64	31	103	198
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>130</u>	<u>134</u>
Total	154	55	283	492
6				
Surface Impoundments	7	7	5	19
Landfills	11	17	20	48
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>20</u>
Total	18	24	45	87

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EXHIBIT 4-6 (continued)

INSTALLATION OF LINERS FOR LEACHATE CONTROL
AT UTILITY WASTE MANAGEMENT FACILITIES
(number of generating units)*

<u>EPA Region</u>	<u>Unlined</u>	<u>Lined</u>	<u>Unknown</u>	<u>Total</u>
7				
Surface Impoundments	30	4	21	55
Landfills	7	4	50	61
Other/Unknown	<u>6</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>33</u>
Total	43	8	98	149
8				
Surface Impoundments	4	0	5	9
Landfills	12	6	38	56
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>44</u>	<u>44</u>
Total	16	6	87	109
9				
Surface Impoundments	2	9	0	11
Landfills	2	4	10	16
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>7</u>
Total	4	13	17	34
10				
Surface Impoundments	0	0	0	0
Landfills	4	0	5	9
Other/Unknown	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>
Total	4	0	7	11
Total U.S.				
Surface Impoundments	303	45	135	483
Landfills	132	90	356	578
Other/Unknown	<u>6</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>307</u>	<u>317</u>
Total	441	139	798	1378

* The data are provided by generating unit because each generating unit at a power plant may have its own waste management facility. A generating unit typically refers to a single boiler, turbine, and generator set at a power plant. A power plant may have more than one generating unit at the site. For the database used here, data were available for 1378 generating units located at 514 power plants.

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- Based on the information available, landfills are more likely to be lined than surface impoundments. Of the 222 generating units that use landfills and that indicated whether the disposal facility was lined or not, about 40 percent (90 units) have lined disposal facilities. Only 13 percent of surface impoundments have liners installed (based on information from 348 of the 483 units).

The information in Exhibit 4-6 should be interpreted cautiously since data were available for only 42 percent of the population (580 units of 1,378 units). One of the reasons this information is unavailable is due to the number of electric utilities that dispose of coal combustion wastes off-site. In many of these cases, the utility does not know whether the off-site disposal facility is lined or not since the utility does not run the disposal operation.

Liner use has been increasing in recent years. Before 1975, less than 20 percent of all generating units managed their coal combustion wastes in lined facilities. For units constructed since 1975, however, this percentage has increased to over 40 percent. The proportion of lined management facilities is particularly high at generating units that produce FGD sludge; since 1975 about 60 percent of management facilities containing these wastes have been lined.

4.2.2.2 Leachate Collection and Ground-Water Monitoring

Any lined management facility may have a leachate collection system and any facility (lined or unlined) may be equipped with a ground-water monitoring system. Leachate collection systems are used to prevent the

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migration of contamination from a landfill or impoundment. Both systems can be used to monitor the rate and extent of contaminant migration. The design and placement of ground-water monitoring and leachate collection systems should take into account the manner in which a landfill or impoundment might potentially interfere with natural ground-water flow and usage patterns.

In surface impoundments, the leachate collection system(s) can be placed below the entire liner system or it can be placed between any two liners. Leachate collection systems typically consist of a drainage media (coarse sand and/or gravel) and perforated pipes (called riser pipes) that slope toward a collection sump. The collected leachate is pumped out via these riser pipes to the surface for treatment and/or disposal. If the riser pipes through which the leachate is pumped perforate the synthetic or clay liner, tight seals are necessary to ensure that the leachate does not escape through the perforation.

In landfills, leachate control systems can be installed below all liners (this is usually called a pressure relief system), between liners (the inter-liner leachate control system), and/or above the upper liner. The floors of a landfill cell are designed to slope to the leachate collection sumps and are usually covered with a drainage media such as sand or gravel. Each leachate control system has its own collection sump, which is emptied through riser pipes so that the leachate can be treated or disposed appropriately. As with impoundment liner systems, riser pipes, if they pierce the liners, must be sealed to prevent leakage.

4-35

Ground-water monitoring wells are placed at strategic locations to facilitate early detection of any contaminants that escape the facility and migrate to the ground water. The design and placement of the monitoring wells is based on site-specific hydrogeological assessments, soil chemistry, specific regulatory directives, and other physical and chemical factors. Downgradient wells typically are used to monitor the extent of contamination arising from a facility, and upgradient "background" wells are installed to serve as controls.

Most newer utility waste management facilities have ground-water monitoring systems, and many also have leachate collection systems. In other industries, permitted facilities subject to Subtitle C regulations are required by law to have both ground-water monitoring and leachate collection systems.¹⁶ For utility waste disposal sites, it is estimated that about 15 percent of all facilities have leachate collection systems and about 35 percent have ground-water monitoring systems.¹⁷

4.2.2.3 Pre-disposal Treatment

Facilities employ a variety of waste treatment processes to alter the physical or chemical characteristics of wastes so that they will be compatible with the disposal method used. Treatment methods may also be employed to comply with the effluent limitations established under the Clean Water Act.

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Sludge Dewatering

The most commonly used pre-disposal treatment process is sludge dewatering. This process is often necessary so that the sludge can be more easily handled and of a consistency suitable for landfill disposal. This procedure can also be used for any wet coal ash or combined coal ash/FGD sludge wastes. Most frequently, sludge dewatering is accomplished by sedimentation of the suspended solids in surface impoundments or, in some cases, in clarification tanks. This type of dewatering is carried out at 80 percent of the utilities.¹⁸

After the waste solids have had sufficient time to settle, the water layer is drawn off the tank or impoundment and is either discharged subject to National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) permits or recycled back to the plant as sluice or cooling water. The sludge layer containing the solid ash and other particles is allowed to accumulate for several months (or longer), and is finally dredged after the pond is drained. With this process, the solids content (initially between 5 and 15 percent by weight) can be increased to between 30 and 60 percent. The final solids content in the sludge is affected by the sedimentation impoundment or tank design, the initial solids content, the liquid and solids retention times, and the physical and chemical characteristics of the solid particles.

Even after dewatering, the settled sludges often have a mud-like consistency and still contain so much free liquid that they are

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inappropriate for landfill disposal. In this case, the sludge may be further dewatered by natural or mechanical processes. In arid and semi-arid areas, the sludges may be retained in the impoundments until natural evaporation removes still more water. Sludges may also be placed on drying beds made of screens, sand, or other drainage media designed to allow water to percolate out by gravity, while the solids are retained. In mechanical sludge dewatering, belt or vacuum filters, filter presses, thermal dryers, or other processes are used. Ten percent of the utilities use some sort of filtration to dewater sludges.¹⁹ For high-volume sludges, however, mechanical dewatering equipment may be expensive and inconvenient to operate.

Reagent Addition

Most FGD sludges and some other wet sludges can be rendered less chemically reactive and/or more structurally stable by adding solidification, stabilization, or fixation reagents. This practice is not widespread; less than 10 percent of the utilities report using these processes.²⁰ Solidification agents, such as sawdust or soil, absorb the liquid in a sludge but do not chemically react with the sludge. Stabilization and fixation reagents chemically react with some portion of the sludge -- either the water, the dissolved solids, the particulate solids, or some combination of the three-- and, in some cases, may render potentially hazardous material non-hazardous as a result. All of these processes result in an increased volume of waste that contains less free water and is easier to handle than the original waste stream. An

additional benefit is an increase in the structural integrity (shear stress and load-bearing potential; see Chapter Three for discussion of these characteristics) of the waste material so that it may be placed in deeper disposal facilities and covered with more material.

Low-volume Waste Treatment

The major methods available for low-volume waste management and treatment include:

- co-disposal;
- contract disposal;
- evaporation;
- incineration;
- neutralization;
- physical/chemical treatment; and
- recycle/reuse.

The type of waste management method used most often depends on the type of low-volume waste stream. Exhibit 4-7 shows the treatment process commonly used for each low volume waste stream. Each of these treatment processes is discussed briefly below.

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EXHIBIT 4-7

SUMMARY OF CURRENT HANDLING, TREATMENT AND
DISPOSAL OF LOW VOLUME WASTES

Low Volume Waste	Treatment	Predominant Disposal Method
Waterside Cleaning Waste	If organic chelating agents are used, this stream can be incinerated. If acids are used, the stream is often neutralized and precipitated with lime and flocculants.	1. Co-disposal with high volume wastes in pond or landfill following treatment. 2. Disposal by paid contractor.
Fireside Cleaning Waste	Sometimes neutralized and precipitated. For coal-fired plants most often diverted to ash ponds without treatment. If metals content is high, chemical coagulation and settling is used.	1. Co-disposal with high volume wastes in pond without treatment. 2. Ponding following treatment.
Air Preheater Cleaning Waste	Settling in ash pond; neutralized and coagulated if combined with other streams before treatment.	1. Co-disposal in pond without treatment. 2. Ponding with treatment.
Coal Pile Runoff	Neutralized by diverting to alkaline ash pond. Fine coal material caught in perimeter ditch is often diverted back to coal pile.	1. Co-disposal of sludge in landfill after treatment. 2. Co-disposal in ash pond.
Wastewater Treatment	Usually ponded with ash or as a separate waste. Sometimes solids co-disposed with bottom ash.	1. Ponding 2. Landfilling
Make-up Water Treatment	usually co-disposed in ash pond.	1. Co-disposal in pond.
Cooling Tower Basin Sludge	Very little survey or literature information; infrequent stream. Sludge comingled with wastewater treatment sludge.	1. Landfilling

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EXHIBIT 4-7 (Continued)

**SUMMARY OF CURRENT HANDLING, TREATMENT AND
DISPOSAL OF LOW VOLUME WASTES**

Low Volume Waste	Treatment	Predominant Disposal Method
Demineralizer Regenerants	Equalized in tanks, then comingled into ash ponds.	1. Ponding
Pyrite Wastes	Disposed in landfills with bottom ash or diverted to ash pond	1. Ponding 2. Landfilling

Source: EPRI, Characterization of Utility Low-Volume Wastes, prepared by
Radian Corporation, Austin, Texas, May 1985.

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-- Co-Disposal

Co-disposal of low-volume wastes with high-volume wastes into landfills and surface impoundments is commonly used in the utility industry. A January 1981 EPA letter (the Dietrich memorandum) currently allows co-disposal of low-volume wastes with high-volume wastes in landfills and surface impoundments.²¹ In a 1985 EPRI study on low-volume waste management, about three-fourths of the power plants interviewed co-disposed some low-volume wastes in a surface impoundment or landfill.²² The amount of treatment necessary before co-disposal varies with the waste stream. Solid wastes are typically disposed directly into the waste management facility. Liquid wastes are often routed to an interim treatment surface impoundment. Once in the surface impoundment, evaporation occurs and the remaining sludge is landfilled. If the liquid waste is chemically treated before ponding, heavy metals are often removed in a treatment facility; the treated liquid may then be reused or diverted to a surface impoundment while the residue from the treatment process is disposed in a landfill.

-- Contract Disposal

Many utilities hire outside contractors to treat and dispose of low-volume wastes. Contract disposal is most common for low-volume waste streams produced intermittently that are difficult to treat on-site. For example, hydrochloric acid boiler cleaning waste typically requires neutralization with high dosages of a caustic material. Construction of an on-site treatment system for this waste stream requires a large capital investment, although boiler cleaning wastes are produced only over a few hours once every two to five years. As a result, some

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utilities (7 of 22 power plants surveyed in EPRI's 1985 study) employ outside contractors when boiler cleaning is required.²³ The treated boiler cleaning waste is then co-disposed on-site or disposed of off-site.

Contract disposal is also a common waste management practice for spent ion exchange resin. In EPRI's 1985 study, of five power plants responding, four plants hauled these wastes off-site while one power plant co-disposed the waste on-site.²⁴

-- Evaporation

Evaporation ponds are used to dispose of high concentration, low-volume liquid wastes. Prior to final disposal, liquid wastes are diverted to an evaporation pond, generally shallow ponds with a large surface area. The sludge remaining after most of the water evaporates is then dredged and disposed of in a landfill.

-- Incineration

Incineration of low-volume wastes includes injection into the boiler or mechanical evaporation. This method of disposal is most common with organic cleaning wastes (Ethylenediamide tetracetic acid (EDTA) or citrate waste). A 1987 EPRI study²⁵ examined the effect of incinerating EDTA and citrate wastes in a utility boiler. The findings showed that the additional metals contributed were minimal compared to the amount contributed by the coal.

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Two of the twenty-two power plants interviewed in EPRI's 1985 study use this method of waste disposal.²⁶

-- Neutralization

Acidic or alkaline wastes can be treated with either strong bases or acids, respectively, to produce a near neutral stream. For example, wastewaters, demineralizer regenerant, and coal pile runoff must typically be within a pH range of 6.0 to 9.0 to meet Clean Water Act (CWA) and National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) limits. Neutralization can be used to achieve these levels. Similarly, hydrochloric acid boiler cleaning waste, which may have a pH below 2.0, can undergo neutralization to raise the pH above RCRA corrosivity guidelines (pH values between 2.0 and 12.5 are not considered corrosive under RCRA).²⁷

-- Other Physical/Chemical Treatment

Physical and/or chemical treatment systems can be used for reducing and removing dissolved and suspended contaminants from aqueous streams. The most prevalent treatments incorporate pH adjustment (i.e., addition of basic or acidic materials), precipitation (i.e., separating solids from solution or suspension), flocculation (i.e., aggregation of fine suspended particles), clarification (i.e., separating liquid and suspended solids) and filtration (i.e., trapping suspended solids). The continuous waste streams are treated to allowable levels. Boiler chemical cleaning and fireside cleaning wastes require higher reagent doses and occasionally additional

4-44

processing to meet Clean Water Act (CWA) and National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) discharge limits for metals. Ten of the 15 power plants questioned in EPRI's 1985 study route boiler cleaning wastes through physical and/or chemical treatment systems prior to discharge.²⁸

-- Reuse

Reuse is a common practice for many water-based low volume wastes, especially in water-limited regions of the country. For example, less contaminated streams (boiler blowdown, yard drains) can be used without treatment in cooling towers, ash handling systems, and flue gas desulfurization systems. Other wastes, such as boiler cleaning wastes and coal pile runoff, cannot easily be reused because they require extensive treatment prior to reuse. If a power plant does decide to treat these waste streams, the liquid portion of treated waste may be reused while the sludges produced during treatment are typically landfilled.

4.2.3 Ocean Disposal

Many different types of wastes, including industrial and municipal wastes, have been disposed at sea in the past, although the use of this method for disposing coal combustion wastes is only in the research and development phase. Typically, industrial and municipal wastes are shipped out to sea and disposed at any of several regulated dump sites, which are located anywhere from 20 miles to over 100 miles off the shore line. Another method of ocean disposal (seldom used, however) involves pumping or

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gravity feeding wastes through a pipeline that feeds directly from the land-based waste generating site or dump site into the ocean. When the wastes reach the final oceanic disposal site, they either dissolve and disperse or form a manmade reef.

The 1972 Marine Protection Research and Sanctuaries Act (MPRSA), EPA regulations regarding ocean disposal,²⁹ and the London Dumping Convention currently regulate ocean dumping with respect to the solids content, metals content, and toxicity of wastes considered for this method of disposal.

4.2.4 Waste Utilization and Recovery of Various Waste By-Products

Although the majority of the waste generated by coal-fired electric utilities is land disposed, a substantial percentage is recovered and reused. From 1970 to 1980, an average of 18 percent of all coal ash generated annually was utilized;³⁰ from 1980 to 1985, the average coal ash utilization rate exceeded 22 percent, with utilization in 1985 over 27 percent of all coal ash produced.³¹ The amount of FGD sludge waste utilized is less than one percent of the total volume of FGD waste generated, although more efficient FGD sludge recovery and utilization processes currently being developed by the utility industry may increase this use. The combined utilization rate for all high-volume coal combustion wastes, i.e., fly ash, bottom ash, boiler slag, and FGD sludge, was about 21 percent in 1985.

4-46

The recovery processes are usually performed at the power plant. Use of the recycled waste may occur on-site or the recycled product may be sold for off-site use. Like any industrial product, the wastes to be recycled may be accumulated on-site prior to sale and delivery.

The recovery processes and the uses for waste by-products are numerous and quite varied:

- Bottom ash currently has the highest rate of utilization at 33 percent. It is used as blasting grit, road and construction fill material,³² for roofing granules, and has other miscellaneous uses.
- Fly ash utilization is substantial. About 17 percent of fly ash production is used for concrete admixture, cement additives, grouting, road and construction fill material, and for miscellaneous other uses.³³
- FGD wastes are not heavily utilized in the industry (less than 1 percent), but some utilities have the capacity to recover sulfur,³⁴ sulfuric acid, or other sulfur products from the waste.
- Some low-volume wastes (particularly solvents) that are segregated from the high-volume waste streams are potentially recoverable or available for other uses.
- Numerous other recovery processes and utilization techniques are currently in the research and development phase. At this time, however, the Agency is unaware of any advances in recovery processes that will significantly change the proportion of coal combustion wastes that are disposed.

Coal Ash

There are a variety of different options currently available for the utilization of fly ash, bottom ash, and boiler slag from coal-fired electric

4-47

utilities. All types of coal ash are appropriate for use as construction materials, as cement additives, and for several other uses. Coal ash utilization is primarily centered in the southeast and north central United States.³⁵

Most fly ash and some bottom ash exhibit pozzolanic (bonding) properties -- that is, the dried materials are cohesive and exhibit high shear strength and compressive load-bearing characteristics. These properties make ash an appropriate substitute for portland cement for many applications, including concrete production, standard cement production, and for special uses such as for the production of road base cement or even grouting.

Cement made with fly ash may be preferable to regular portland cement for some applications. One of the key benefits is the absence of heat release while the concrete or cement mixture cures; this absence of heat generation means that the design structural strength is more likely to be achieved. However, the use of fly ash and bottom ash as cement substitutes is limited because of the wide variability in ash composition, even in ash originating from the same coal supply or utility. The presence of metals in the ash can reduce the structural integrity of the final concrete by preventing the necessary chemical bonding. The presence of large quantities of sulfates or nitrates will also interfere with the pozzolanic properties. Because of this bonding interference, fly ash and bottom ash are thought to be able to replace no more than 20 percent of the cement used (or about 15 million tons of ash annually).³⁶ Improvements in utilization techniques may reduce the bonding interference and increase the reutilization potential of

4-48

fly ash; however, the Agency is unaware of technical advances at this time that will allow substantially greater utilization in cement applications.

Fly ash and bottom ash are also commonly used as high-volume fill for various construction materials. The pozzolanic properties of these materials facilitate soil stabilization, making them desirable as fill additives. Coal ash has been used as fill in asphalt, road bases, parking lots, housing developments, embankments, and to line on-site disposal facilities at the utilities. In the future, numerous other construction applications may use coal ash as fill, particularly if the ash is available at lower cost than standard fill materials. However, the use of ash as fill is limited somewhat because of the variability of the ash composition.

Bottom ash and boiler slag have been used as substitutes for sand in sand-blasting operations and road de-icing. Ash and slag particles are similar in size and density to sand particles. In areas where sand is costly to transport, these wastes can be economical substitutes. Ash is less corrosive than salt and could therefore be a preferable de-icing material, although in some municipalities the use of ash for de-icing has been prohibited due to public concern over aesthetics (e.g., ash residue on cars).

A variety of minor uses for fly ash and bottom ash have been considered, some of which have already been implemented at a small number of utilities. For example, bottom ash has been used for granular roofing material. Fly ash has been used by some facilities as a stabilization reagent for acidic

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aqueous or semi-solid hazardous wastes: the high-pH fly ash reacts with other, low-pH waste to generate a neutral solution and to simultaneously precipitate dissolved metals as oxides and hydroxides. Because the fly ash exhibits pozzolanic properties, the ultimate waste product, when dried, often resembles concrete. The metals from the original waste stream are usually so strongly bound within the chemical structure of the final waste product that they will not leach out, even under acidic conditions.

Because fly ash has some of the same physical characteristics as a silty clay, fly ash may be used as an additive to clay liners for waste management facilities, particularly for impoundments. Fly ash is cohesive and fairly impermeable when properly compacted, and mixes well with some of the clays used in impoundment liners. However, because chemical composition of fly ash is variable, its utilization as liner material may be limited. If methods are improved to be sure that minimum permeability and shear strength requirements could be maintained over time, then the use of fly ash as an impoundment liner material may increase.

Fly ash has been used occasionally as a soil conditioner to increase the pH of acidic soils, thereby enhancing crop growth. Fly ash can also contribute minerals to the soil. However, soil conditioners in common use today, mostly agricultural limestones, are so inexpensive and easy to obtain that it would be difficult to penetrate this market with a fly ash product.

There are few processes currently available for recovery of materials from coal ash. One facility has had some commercial success at producing

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magnetite from fly ash.³⁷ Magnetite recovered from fly ash actually contains a higher percentage of magnetics than does natural magnetite, making it a more efficient coal cleaning agent. This particular technology shows some promise of expanding; other processes, mostly for metals recovery, are in the development stage. Recovery processes for alumina and titanium are at an advanced stage of development. However, while both these technologies have been proven feasible, neither is currently economically competitive with ore-processing technologies. Another potential metal recovery process, dubbed the DAL process and still in the research stage, involves a series of relatively simple operations that can be performed with commercially available process equipment to recover various metals from fly ash. Theoretically, this process could show a substantial return on investment soon after the recovery facility began operating.³⁸

There is little information available to the Agency on the environmental effects of utilization of coal combustion wastes. For many applications, such as the use of coal ash in cement and concrete products, it would appear that any adverse environmental impacts would be minimal. To the extent that coal combustion wastes can be recycled in an environmentally acceptable manner, utilization would help to reduce the amount of waste disposed. The Agency is very interested in reducing the amount of waste that needs to be disposed by the utility industry; however, barring major breakthroughs in recycling techniques, it appears the potential for significantly increasing the amount of waste utilization may be limited.³⁹ Given current utilization techniques, the Agency expects that the major portion of coal combustion wastes will continue to be land disposed.

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FGD Wastes

The prospects for utilization of FGD sludge are less promising than those for ash utilization. FGD sludge is not structurally stable or strong enough to serve as a construction material, nor does it show the pozzolanic properties required for a cement substitute. Current research in the field of FGD sludge utilization is focusing on a dry scrubber method in which reagents will be used to precipitate the FGD waste streams as dry gypsum powder. Gypsum is sold for use in wallboard; however, there is currently a glut on the market, and in any case, other sources of gypsum may be preferred because the gypsum produced from FGD is often of lesser quality. Some researchers are making an effort to find a reagent that will precipitate a dry powder which, when mixed with water, will exhibit pozzolanic properties and will harden to a concrete-like material. No testing has been done, however, as the research is still in the conceptual stage.

Although by-product utilization of FGD sludges comprises less than one percent of total sludge production, a much greater percentage of FGD by-products may be recoverable in the very near future since two full-scale recovery processes and one test-scale recovery process for FGD by-products are currently under development. Of the two full-scale processes, the Wellman-Lord process recovers both sulfuric acid and elemental sulfur from the waste stream, while the magnesium oxide scrubber process recovers only sulfuric acid.⁴⁰ The citrate scrubbing process, currently in the testing phase, recovers elemental sulfur. FGD recovery processes currently in the

research stage will be used to recover elemental sulfur, sulfuric acid, and gypsum from the FGD process, and should be available for full-scale use within the next decade.⁴¹ All recovery processes for FGD wastes generate both a by-product stream and a waste stream that must be disposed.

Low-Volume Utility Wastes

EPA currently assumes that most low-volume utility wastes are co-disposed with the high-volume wastes or, in some instances, burned in the boiler at the power plant, although little data exist that accurately describe industry-wide practices on low-volume waste disposal.⁴² Since co-disposal is a common industry practice, low-volume wastes do not have specific processes associated with their recovery or utilization. Although this practice of co-disposal (or burning) may continue into the future, certain waste streams, such as spent cleaning solvents, might be recovered by distilling and collecting the solvents at high temperature, which would leave a low-volume residue to be disposed. The recovered solvent could then be reused on-site as a cleaning solvent or sold to another facility. If an organic solvent were contaminated in such a way that contaminant removal were difficult or impossible, the contaminated solvent could be burned. For low-volume waste streams burned in the boiler, these wastes could be transported to an off-site facility that would burn them as fuel. If low-volume wastes were considered hazardous, regulations might restrict the burning of these wastes, potentially making this option infeasible.⁴³

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Other recovery schemes for individual low-volume waste streams may be developed if these streams are segregated from the high-volume wastes. At this time, however, few recovery processes and utilization techniques have been considered separately for low-volume utility wastes.

Recycled Effluent

Approximately 25 percent of the utilities that utilize surface impoundments recycle some of their pond effluent back to the plant.⁴⁴ If the recycled effluent is used as sluice water, the system pH may increase to values well above 10. The recycled effluent may also be used as cooling water prior to ultimate discharge. Although effluent recycling is not a waste recovery or utilization technique, it can affect the chemical characteristics of the solid wastes that may come into contact with the recycled water.

4.3 SUMMARY

Coal combustion waste management practices by electric utilities vary widely across the industry. State regulation, regional factors such as land availability and water availability, and age of the power plant all have an effect on the type of waste management practices that are employed. Alternative practices, such as ground-water monitoring and leachate collection, are used by some utilities, and in some states are mandated by regulation. A significant portion of coal combustion by-products are recovered and utilized for various purposes.

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- All but one state regulates the disposal of coal combustion wastes under their hazardous or solid waste disposal regulations. One state exempts these wastes from regulation.
- State solid waste regulations applicable to coal combustion wastes vary widely across the country. Generally, solid waste regulations require that disposal facilities have permits; location restrictions and standards related to liners, leachate control, and ground-water monitoring are applied on a case-by-case basis.
- Currently, about 80 percent of all coal-fired power plant wastes are land managed; the remaining 20 percent are recycled or recovered. The most common types of disposal facilities used by utilities generating coal-fired wastes are surface impoundments, landfills, and abandoned mines.
- Currently, about 25 percent of utility treatment, storage, and disposal facilities that receive combustion waste are lined. About 15 percent of all facilities have leachate collection systems, and 35 percent have ground-water monitoring.
- Newer facilities are more likely to be lined, have leachate collection systems, and ground-water monitoring systems. More than 40 percent of all generating units constructed since 1975 use lined disposal facilities.
- About 20 percent of all high-volume combustion wastes, particularly fly ash and bottom ash, are recycled, primarily as cement additives, high-volume road construction material, or blasting grit.
- About 99 percent of FGD wastes are currently disposed; however, recovery of sulfur and sulfur products from FGD wastes is a developing and promising technology.

CHAPTER 4

NOTES

¹ Wald, Harkrader & Ross, Survey of State Laws and Regulations Governing Disposal of Utility Coal-Combustion Byproducts, for the Utility Solid Waste Activities Group (USWAG), 1983.

² States have probably followed U.S. EPA's lead in exempting coal combusting wastes. Many states' regulations explicitly refer to 40 CFR 261.4, or use the clause's exact wording.

³ The following State officials were interviewed: Brett Bettles, Solid Waste Division, Washington Department of Ecology, January 6, 1987; Ken Raymond, Industrial and Solid Waste Division, Oklahoma Department of Health, December 31, 1986; Dwight Hinch, Division of Waste Management, Tennessee Department of Health, December 31, 1986; Shelby Jett, Division of Waste Management, Kentucky Department of Environmental Protection, January 6, 1987; Vincent Nikle, Assistant Liaison's Office, New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection, December 17, 1986.

⁴ According to Maine's Solid Waste Management Regulations: "More Stringent Criteria for Large-Scale Disposal of Oil, Coal and Incinerator Ash: Because of the concentration of heavy metals in residues from the combustion of municipal solid waste or the combustion of oil or coal, including bottom ash and fly ash, disposal of such ashes when they occur in amounts that exceed a total accumulation of 20 cubic yards of coal ash ... per week over any one-month period shall be confined to a secure landfill. For the purposes of these rules, a secure landfill shall mean a landfill with a liner and a leachate management system." (Maine's Solid Waste Management Regulations, Chapter 401.2.3.).

⁵ The exhibit assumes that both on-site and off-site permits are required unless the regulations explicitly state otherwise.

⁶ See Chapter One for discussion of the regulation of low-volume utility waste streams.

⁷ Waste piling, a method occasionally employed by utilities, is not discussed in this report. Waste piles are mounds of ash placed on the ground and covered with soil.

⁸ U.S. Department of Energy, Impacts of Proposed RCRA Regulations and Other Related Federal Environmental Regulations on Utility Fossil Fuel-Fired Facilities, Volume II. 1983.

⁹ See Chapter 6 for a discussion of disposal costs.

¹⁰ Haller, W.A., J.E. Harwood, S.T. Mayne, and A. Gniska, "Ash Basin Equivalency Demonstration (for treatment of boiler cleaning wastes containing heavy metals)," Duke Power Company, 1976.

- 11 EnviroSphere Company, Environmental Settings and Solid Residues Disposal in the Electric Utility Industry, EPRI Report EA-3681, 1982.
- 12 Ibid.
- 13 Ibid.
- 14 A low-permeable clay is one that has been determined in laboratory testing to have a permeability coefficient, K, of 10^{-7} cm/sec or less.
- 15 There are one thousand mils per inch.
- 16 See 40 CFR 264.
- 17 Engineering-Science, Background Data on Utility Fossil Fuel-fired Facilities, prepared for USDOE, Office of Fossil Energy, 1983.
- 18 Ibid.
- 19 Ibid.
- 20 EPRI Journal, 1985, op. cit.
- 21 EPRI, Manual for Low-Volume Wastes From Fossil-Fuel-Fired Power Plants, prepared by Radian Corporation, Austin, Texas, July 1987.
- 22 EPRI, Characterization of Utility Low-Volume Wastes, prepared by Radian Corporation, Austin, Texas, May 1985.
- 23 Ibid.
- 24 Ibid.
- 25 EPRI, 1987.
- 26 EPRI, 1985.
- 27 EPRI, 1987.
- 28 EPRI, 1985.
- 29 40 CFR 228, Criteria for the Management of Ocean Disposal Sites for Ocean Dumping.

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30 EnviroSphere Company, "Economic Analysis of Impact of RCRA on Coal Combustion By-Products Utilization" in Report and Technical Studies on the Disposal and Utilization of Fossil-Fuel Combustion By-Products, Appendix G, prepared for Utility Solid Waste Activities Group (USWAG), October 1982.

31 Information compiled by the American Coal Ash Association on 1985 ash utilization, August 1, 1986.

32 EPRI Journal. 1985. op. cit.

33 Ibid.

34 Ibid.

35 USWAG, 1982.

36 EPRI Journal. 1985. op. cit.

37 USWAG. 1982. op. cit.

38 Ibid.

39 For example, see comments by Garry Jablonski, section manager of ash utilization for the American Electric Power Company, "Coal Ash Market Report," Vol. 1, No. 9, July 15, 1987.

40 EPRI, State-of-the-Art of FGD Sludge Fixation, 1978.

41 Ibid.

42 EnviroSphere Company, Information Responding to EPA's Request Regarding Burning and Co-Treatment/Co-Disposal of Low Volume Wastes Generated At Fossil Fuel Electric Generating Stations, prepared for USWAG and Edison Electric Institute, August 1981.

43 The economics of burning these wastes would depend on the applicable regulations. Regulations concerning the burning of hazardous wastes are currently being developed and are scheduled for final promulgation in mid-1987.

44 U.S. Department of Energy. 1983. Op. cit.

CHAPTER FIVE

POTENTIAL DANGERS TO HUMAN HEALTH AND THE ENVIRONMENT

Under Section 8002(n) of RCRA, EPA is to analyze the "potential danger, if any, to human health and the environment from the disposal and reuse" of coal combustion wastes and "documented cases in which danger to human health or the environment from surface runoff or leachate has been proved." This chapter examines potential and documented dangers to human health and the environment caused by wastes generated from the combustion of coal at electric utility power plants.

As described in Chapter One, special large volume wastes, including coal combustion wastes, are to be treated differently under RCRA than other industrial wastes. Due to the extremely large volume of coal combustion waste and the expectation of relatively low risk from its disposal, Congress directed EPA to evaluate all the factors in 8002(n) of RCRA in determining whether Subtitle C regulation is warranted. The danger from coal combustion waste management is only one of the factors EPA must consider. In order to provide a starting point for evaluating the potential danger from coal combustion waste management, this chapter begins by providing the reader with background information on the characteristics that an industrial solid waste must exhibit to be considered hazardous under RCRA, and then looks at which of these characteristics apply to coal combustion wastes. The next section analyzes several studies that monitored ground-water and surface-water concentrations in and around coal combustion waste disposal sites and documented the number of times that drinking water standards were exceeded. The third section of this

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chapter reviews studies that compiled and evaluated reported incidences of contamination to ground water and surface water due to the disposal of coal combustion wastes. Finally, the fourth section analyzes the factors affecting the exposure of humans, animals, and plants to contaminants from coal combustion waste by examining environmental setting and population data for a random sample of 100 coal-fired utility power plants.

5.1 RCRA SUBTITLE C HAZARDOUS WASTE CHARACTERISTICS AND LISTING CRITERIA

Under RCRA, solid wastes are classified as hazardous if they exhibit characteristics of ignitibility, corrosivity, reactivity, and/or EP toxicity as defined by RCRA or if they are listed as hazardous by the Administrator.

- **Ignitibility** refers to the tendency of a substance to catch fire. A liquid waste is ignitable if it has a flash point less than 60°C, as determined by EPA-specified test protocols. A non-liquid waste is ignitable if, under standard temperature and pressure, it is capable of causing a persistent, hazardous fire through friction, absorption of moisture, or spontaneous chemical change.¹
- **Corrosivity** of waste is determined by measuring the waste's pH, the value used to express relative acidity or alkalinity. A pH value of 7.0 is neutral; substances with a pH less than 7.0 are acidic, while those with a pH greater than 7.0 are alkaline. A waste is corrosive, and therefore hazardous, if it is aqueous and has a pH less than or equal to 2.0 or greater than or equal to 12.5.² A waste is also corrosive if it is liquid and corrodes steel at a rate greater than 6.35 mm per year. The pH measurements and the corrosion rate must be determined using EPA-approved methods.³
- **Reactivity** refers to the stability of a substance. Wastes that are highly reactive and extremely unstable tend to react violently or explode. A waste is reactive if it undergoes violent physical change without detonating, if it reacts violently with water, if it forms a potentially explosive or toxic mixture with

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water, or if it is capable of detonating or exploding at standard temperature and pressure.⁴

- Extraction Procedure (EP) Toxicity is determined from a laboratory procedure designed to simulate leaching from a disposal site under actual disposal conditions.⁵ Concentrations in the effluent from this test are compared with the Primary Drinking Water Standards (PDWS) of eight constituent metals to determine whether a waste is hazardous. A waste is EP toxic if it produces a leachate using an EPA-approved procedure that has concentrations of contaminants that are 100 times the PDWS.⁶

Wastes are also regulated as hazardous wastes under Subtitle C if the Administrator lists them in 40 CFR 261.31-261.33. The Administrator may list wastes using several criteria:

- if they are ignitable, corrosive, reactive, or EP toxic as described above.
- if they have been found to be fatal to humans in low doses, or, in the absence of data on human toxicity, fatal to animals in laboratory tests (these wastes are designated Acute Hazardous Wastes).⁷
- if they contain any of the toxic constituents listed in Appendix VIII of 40 CFR 261, unless the Administrator, after considering the factors contained in 40 CFR 261.11(a)(3), concludes that "the waste is not capable of posing a substantial present or potential hazard to human health or the environment when improperly treated, stored, transported or disposed of, or otherwise managed." The factors that the Administrator may consider include the toxicity of the constituent, the concentration of the constituent in the waste, the potential for degradation, the degree of bioaccumulation to be expected from the constituent, and the quantities of the waste generated. These wastes are designated Toxic Wastes.⁸

Determining whether coal combustion wastes show any of the hazardous characteristics is important in analyzing potential danger to human health and the environment. In general, most coal combustion wastes, such as ash and FGD sludge, are not ignitable. Reactivity is also generally not a characteristic

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of concern for coal combustion wastes. The chemical and physical characteristics of most coal combustion wastes identified in Chapter Three indicate that these wastes are very stable and will likely not react with other substances in their disposal area. The remainder of this section will analyze data on coal combustion wastes to see if these wastes exhibit the characteristics of corrosivity and/or EP toxicity.

5.1.1 Corrosivity of Coal Combustion Wastes

Under current RCRA regulations, only liquid wastes can be considered corrosive. Coal combustion ash, therefore, could not by itself be considered corrosive, even if it generates a corrosive leachate.

For wastes that are aqueous, a waste is corrosive if its pH is less than or equal to 2.0 or greater than or equal to 12.5. Available data indicate that the pH values of most waste streams of coal-fired power plants do not fall within these ranges; in fact, the only wastes that may be classified as corrosive according to the above definition are water-side, hydrochloric acid-based cleaning wastes, which have had measured pH as low as 0.5 (see Exhibit 3-26). In an EPRI report on low volume wastes (see section 5.1.2) three samples of hydrochloric acid-based boiler cleaning waste all had pH levels less than 2. However, these wastes are often neutralized before disposal. Several other waste streams have pH levels which fall very near the corrosive ranges. Most of these are also low volume wastes. Boiler blowdown has measured pH as high as 12, with a range of 8.3-12 (see Exhibit 3-20), and coal pile runoff has measured pH as low as 2.1, with a range of 2.1-6.6 (see Exhibit 3-21). Sludge from dual-alkali FGD processes using eastern coal is a high volume waste with

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measured pH of approximately 12.1 (see Exhibit 3-17). Chapter Three contains a complete description of these wastes.

Several studies of coal combustion waste streams surveyed in this chapter indicate that the alkalinity or acidity of coal combustion wastes, while not necessarily falling in the RCRA corrosive ranges, may occasionally reach levels of potential concern. For example, pH readings of waste fluids taken during a study by Arthur D. Little were as high as 11.4 (see Section 5.2.1). Three case studies described in Appendix D (a study of 12 Tennessee Valley Authority power plants, an individual study at the Bull Run Power Plant, and a study of the Savannah River Project) showed pH readings of waste fluids at 2.0, 3.5, and 2.9, respectively. Section 5.3.1 describes a documented case in which highly alkaline coal combustion waste (pH 12.0) caused substantial harm to aquatic life after it accidentally spilled into Virginia's Clinch River in 1967.

5.1.2 Extraction Procedure (EP) Toxicity of Coal Combustion Wastes

Current RCRA regulations (40 CFR 261.24) specify that if a leachate extracted using an EPA-approved extraction procedure contains any of the metals shown in Exhibit 5-1 at concentrations equal to or greater than the given limit, the waste is classified as EP toxic and, unless otherwise exempted, will be subject to Subtitle C regulation.⁹ The concentrations shown in Exhibit 5-1 are 100 times the current Primary Drinking Water Standards (PDWS) established by the Safe Drinking Water Act for those constituents.

Waste extraction tests are used to predict the type and concentration of constituents that may leach from a waste disposal site under field conditions.

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EXHIBIT 5-1

MAXIMUM CONCENTRATION OF CONTAMINANTS FOR
CHARACTERISTIC OF EP TOXICITY

<u>Contaminant</u>	<u>Level</u>
Arsenic	5.0 mg/l
Barium	100.0 mg/l
Cadmium	1.0 mg/l
Chromium	5.0 mg/l
Lead	5.0 mg/l
Mercury	0.2 mg/l
Selenium	1.0 mg/l
Silver	5.0 mg/l

Source: 40 CFR 261.24, January 16, 1987.

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Most extraction tests are conducted by mixing or washing a waste sample with a water-based solution of a specified composition for a specified length of time. The resulting leachate solution is then separated from the solids and tested for constituent concentrations.

5.1.2.1 Types of Extraction Procedures

Several different types of waste extraction procedures are described in detail below. Although under current regulations only the Extraction Procedure (EP) toxicity test is used to determine whether a waste is EP toxic, EPA has recently proposed a new procedure, the Toxic Characteristic Leaching Procedure (TCLP), to replace the EP test (see Federal Register, Volume 51, No. 114, June 13, 1986, p. 21648). Furthermore, in the period since EPA has promulgated the Extraction Procedure (EP) toxicity test, many people have alleged that the EP provides an inappropriate measure of leaching under field conditions. For these reasons, EPA has reviewed the results of other extraction procedure tests as well as the EP. To the extent that the results of these other procedures on coal combustion wastes are generally consistent with the EP results, the debate over whether the EP test is appropriate or not is moot. Three of the extraction tests described below (EP, TCLP, and ASTM) are batch leaching tests. Batch tests are conducted by placing a waste sample in a water-based solution for a specified period of time. The fourth procedure, the column test, passes a solution through the waste.

- The procedure for the standard EPA extraction test, the Extraction Procedure (EP) toxicity test,¹⁰ requires obtaining a waste sample of at least 100 grams and then separating the liquids from the solids. The solid portion is placed in a container along with 16 times its weight in deionized water, and continually agitated at 20-40°C. Throughout the test, the pH of the batch

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mixture is monitored. If the solution remains above pH 5.0, acetic acid is added to maintain a pH of 5.0. If the solution is less than pH 5.0, no acetic acid is added. If the pH of the batch solution is not below 5.2 after the initial 24-hour agitation period, the pH is adjusted to 5.0 ± 0.2 at the beginning of each hour during an additional 4 hour agitation period. After agitation, the leachate solution is then separated from the solid portion, and the liquid extracted from the original waste sample is added to the leachate solution. These combined liquids are then tested for constituent concentrations.

- Toxic Characteristic Leaching Procedure (TCLP), which EPA has proposed as a replacement for the EP,¹¹ uses a different leaching solution depending on the nature of the waste being tested. For wastes of low alkalinity, a pH 5.0 acetic acid/sodium acetate buffer is used for extraction. If the waste is more alkaline, a normal acetic acid solution is used. Unlike the EP toxicity test, the TCLP can be used for volatile waste constituents.
- The American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) developed the ASTM A procedure, which requires 48-hour agitation of a 1:4 mixture of waste to distilled deionized water. Another test, ASTM B, involves the extraction of waste constituents in a buffered acetic acid solution of pH 4.5.¹² ASTM D, similar to ASTM A, involves the 48-hour agitation of a 350-gram sample with 1400 milliliters of deionized distilled water, and the filtering of the aqueous phase, after agitation, with a 0.45 micron filter.
- Unlike the batch testing methods described above, the column test is conducted by passing a solution through the waste. This test process simulates the migration of leachate and ground water through waste, but still cannot duplicate field conditions perfectly. Because there is no standard column test procedure, column tests are described individually in the studies reviewed in the next section of this chapter.

The results of various studies (conducted with the above-mentioned extraction tests) on the leaching of constituents from coal combustion wastes are discussed below.

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5.1.2.2 Results of Extraction Tests

Tetra Tech Study

In 1983 Tetra Tech conducted a literature review for the Electric Power Research Institute (EPRI) and reported results from a number of leachate extraction studies.¹³ An examination of the results of various leaching tests (EP toxicity test, ASTM A, and ASTM B) on coal ash and flue gas desulfurization (FGD) sludge revealed that results differed by waste type and were ultimately dependent upon the source of the fuel (see Exhibit 5-2) and the mechanics of combustion. The study results were presented separately for ash and FGD sludge.

Results of the batch leaching tests (EP, ASTM A, and ASTM B) reported in the studies reviewed by Tetra Tech were presented as averages of the element concentrations found in numerous runs of one type of extraction test. Ranges of the concentrations were sometimes presented as well. Depending on the laboratory that ran the test, EP, ASTM A, and ASTM B batch leaching tests were run on as few as 3 and as many as 62 samples.

Tetra Tech reviewed 457 EP tests on various types of ash. Results from these EP tests show a geometric mean concentration for selenium equal to its PDWS. Geometric mean concentrations for the other 7 metals were below their respective PDWS. The maximum concentrations were 4 times the PDWS for silver, 29 times for arsenic, 8 times for barium, 140 times for cadmium, 14 times for chromium, 4 times for mercury, 5 times for lead, and 17 times for selenium.

Tetra Tech also reported results from 202 ASTM A tests on ash. Selenium was

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EXHIBIT 5-2

EFFECT OF GEOGRAPHIC COAL SOURCE
ON ELEMENT CONCENTRATION IN ASH

<u>Element</u>	<u>Geographic Variation</u>
Arsenic	low in western coal ash; difference in concentration between eastern coal and midwestern coal ashes indistinguishable
Barium	highest in western coal ash
Cadmium	most concentrated in midwestern coal ash
Chromium	low in western coal ash; difference in concentration between eastern and midwestern coal ashes indistinguishable
Mercury	highest in eastern coal ash; all distributions highly skewed toward high concentrations
Lead	highest in midwestern coal ash
Selenium	similar in eastern and midwestern coal ash; lower in western coal ash
Strontium	highest in western ash; lowest in midwestern ash
Vanadium	similar in eastern and midwestern coal ash; lower in western coal ash
Zinc	highest in midwestern ash; lowest in western ash

Source: Tetra Tech, Inc., Physical-Chemical Characteristics of Utility Solid Wastes, prepared for Electric Power Research Institute, EA-3236, September 1983.

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the only constituent with a geometric mean concentration greater than the PDWS, at a level approximately 2 times the PDWS. The maximum concentrations were less than the PDWS for silver and mercury. For the other elements, the maximum concentrations from the ASTM-A procedure were 7 times PDWS for arsenic, 4 times for barium, 1.3 times for cadmium, 10 times for chromium, 5 times for lead, and 48 times for selenium.

Cadmium was the only constituent in fly ash leachate extracted using the EP for which there was a maximum concentration over 100 times the PDWS (and therefore above the EP toxicity level). The EP produced a leachate that had a maximum cadmium concentration 140 times the PDWS. However, the average cadmium concentration for the 62 EP samples was only half the PDWS. Tetra Tech did not report the percentage of samples whose cadmium concentration exceeded 100 times the PDWS. In general, the more acidic or alkaline the leaching solution, the higher the concentrations of leached constituents. Tetra Tech concluded that the geometric mean concentrations from the EP and ASTM-A tests were similar. The results of the EP and ASTM-A tests are presented in Exhibit 5-3.

Tetra Tech also reviewed data from a number of column tests on coal ash. The test results did not show any concentrations greater than 100 times the PDWS for any element tested. One test was conducted during a two-year period using a continuous-flow method to produce leachate from fly ash. In another test, fly ash and bottom ash were packed separately in glass columns, each of which was leached for 27 days with 200 milliliters per day of either distilled water, dilute base, or dilute acid. For a third test, fly ash and bottom ash were packed in water-saturated glass columns. At one-week intervals, the columns were flushed from below at a moderate rate for two hours. This test was

EXHIBIT 5-3

RESULTS OF TETRA TECH EXTRACTION TESTS ON COAL COMBUSTION ASH

Constituent	Primary Drinking Water Standard (mg/l)	EP Test Results			ASTM A Test Results		
		Range	Geometric Mean	Maximum Exceedance	Range	Geometric Mean	Maximum Exceedance
Arsenic	.05	<.004- 1.46 mg/l	.012 mg/l	29 X PDMS	<.0005-0.37 mg/l	.0072 mg/l	7 X PDMS
Barium	1.0	.003- 7.6 mg/l	0.222 mg/l	8 X PDMS	.0004-3.8 mg/l	0.208 mg/l	4 X PDMS
Cadmium	.01	.0001- 1.4 mg/l	.0047 mg/l	140 X PDMS	.0001-.013 mg/l	.00039 mg/l	1.3 X PDMS
Chromium	.05	.001- 0.68 mg/l	.036 mg/l	14 X PDMS	.0005-0.5 mg/l	.047 mg/l	10 X PDMS
Lead	.05	<.0001-0.25 mg/l	.005 mg/l	5 X PDMS	<.0001-0.25 mg/l	.0025 mg/l	5 X PDMS
Mercury	.002	<.0001- .007 mg/l	.00042 mg/l	4 X PDMS	<.0001-.0012 mg/l	.00027 mg/l	0.6 X PDMS
Selenium	.01	<.0001-0.17 mg/l	.01 mg/l	17 X PDMS	.0005-0.48 mg/l	.019 mg/l	48 X PDMS
Silver	.05	<.0001-0.20 mg/l	.00064 mg/l	4 X PDMS	<.0001-.03 mg/l	.0007 mg/l	0.6 X PDMS

Source: Tetra Tech, Inc., Physical-Chemical Characteristics of Utility Solid Wastes, prepared for Electric Power Research Institute, EA-3236, September 1983.

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intended to simulate the intermittent wetting to which some ash disposal sites are subject.

Partly because flue gas desulfurization (FGD) technologies have only achieved widespread commercial usage in recent years, FGD sludge has not been as thoroughly characterized as coal ash. However, the Tetra Tech study reported the results of tests performed on sludges from a number of scrubber processes, including the lime/limestone/alkaline fly ash process, the dual alkali/sodium carbonate process (both these processes produce "lime sludge" and are the main technologies currently in use), and the spray drying process (this process produces calcium-based dry scrubber sludge and may be used more extensively in the future).

Results from EP tests on calcium-based dry scrubber sludge showed a maximum concentration of cadmium that was 150 times the PDWS, above the EP toxic level. Arsenic and selenium were also analyzed using the EP test; the maximum arsenic concentration was 32 times the PDWS and the maximum for selenium was 1.8 times the PDWS. No other constituents were tested for this waste stream. (Results from the EP studies on calcium-based dry scrubber sludge were not averaged but reported as ranges - the number of tests performed was not given).

Tetra Tech also presented results of EP tests on lime sludge. These tests measured concentrations of all EP toxicity constituents, and none were found to be at EP toxic levels.

Tetra Tech also reported on column tests performed on FGD sludge. In one column test, calcium-based dry scrubber sludge was leached with deionized water

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for 11 months. In another, various proportions of fly ash, wet calcium sulfate (i.e., gypsum), calcium sulfite precipitate, and calcium oxide (lime) were mixed, cured for 500 days, and leached with deionized water that was forced through the waste columns. The leaching test results (reported in a manner similar to that for reporting results of coal ash leaching studies) indicated, on the basis of an unreported number of tests, that PDWS constituents in lime sludge and calcium-based dry scrubber sludge leached at concentrations that exceeded their PDWS by multiples of less than 5 for silver, 32 for arsenic, 2 for barium, 30 for chromium, 10 for lead, and 15 for selenium; the concentration of mercury found in sludge leachate matched its PDWS. No constituents were at concentrations above 100 times the PDWS.

In summary, none of the coal ash or FGD sludge leaching studies reviewed by Tetra Tech showed constituent concentrations greater than 100 times the PDWS, with the exception of cadmium from calcium-based dry scrubber FGD sludge and from coal ash. Both results were from EP toxicity procedure tests. The behavior of these wastes primarily depended on the source of the fuel and the mechanics of combustion. Tetra Tech concluded that there were gaps in the characterization of these wastes that made definitive conclusions difficult to reach.

Department of Energy Study

The Department of Energy (DOE) conducted a compilation study of leaching test results, Analytical Aspects of the Fossil Energy Waste Sampling and Characterization Project,¹⁴ for the purpose of generating a data base on the

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leaching characteristics of coals and their combustion wastes. The EP test was compared to a water leach test developed by ASTM (this test later became ASTM D) and evaluated to determine the precision of the EP toxicity method when applied to coal wastes. In their summary of the collected data, DOE reported that for six of the analyzed constituents there were no significant differences between the testing results derived from the two methods. The results of 2492 separate extraction tests for the eight PDWS constituent metals (arsenic, barium, cadmium, chromium, lead, mercury, selenium and silver) indicated that none of the metals leached at concentrations that exceeded the PDWS by 50 times, and most leached at concentrations less than 10 times the PDWS. This was true for both the EP test and the ASTM test.

Arthur D. Little Study

EPA sponsored a study by Arthur D. Little, Inc. (see Section 5.2.1) which included EP Toxicity tests on 20 fly ash samples from 16 power plants and 3 FGD waste samples from 3 power plants.¹⁵ The names of the plants from which the samples were taken were not revealed because Arthur D. Little did not consider the single "grab" samples obtained for testing to be representative. The EP test results showed no EP toxic levels in the extracted leachates of any samples. Silver and mercury concentrations were below the reported detection limits of .001 mg/l and .002 mg/l, respectively, for all samples. Lead was detected in only three out of seventeen samples. Other PDWS constituents (arsenic, cadmium, chromium, selenium, and barium) were detected, but all were found at concentrations less than 100 times the PDWS. In contrast to the Tetra Tech study reported above, leachates extracted from FGD samples had concentrations of PDWS constituents that tended to be lower than the

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concentrations in leachates extracted from fly ash samples, whereas the Tetra Tech report indicated that, in general, higher concentrations of PDWS constituents were leached from FGD sludges than from coal ash. This discrepancy may be due to variations in the wastes themselves, which, in turn, are due to differences among coals derived from different sources. Results of the Arthur D. Little study are presented in Exhibit 5-4.

Battelle Pacific Northwest Study

In another study for the Electric Power Research Institute (EPRI), Battelle Pacific Northwest reviewed data developed during a round-robin study that compared results from three laboratories performing both the EP and TCLP tests.¹⁶ Battelle Northwest compared the two extraction procedures by looking at the ratio of the mean TCLP concentrations to the mean EP concentrations for each element. These ratios fell within the range of 0.8 to 1.2 about 60 percent of the time. Only 15 percent of the ratios exceeded 2.0. In 83 percent of the comparisons, the TCLP test leachate contained greater concentrations of the PDWS constituents than the EP test leachate.¹⁷

Battelle compared the maximum mean concentration of each compound (taken from the pool of averaged results for each constituent from both EP and TCLP testing of all the waste samples) with the corresponding PDWS. This comparison indicated that for both the EP and the TCLP procedures, concentrations of silver, barium, and mercury were less than the established PDWS for those metals, whereas the concentration of arsenic was 21 times the PDWS; cadmium, 25 times; chromium, 13 times; lead, 4 times; and selenium, 14 times.

EXHIBIT 5-4

RESULTS OF ARTHUR D. LITTLE TESTING SHOWING THE
RANGE OF CONCENTRATION OF METALS IN EXTRACTS ^{a/}

Metal	(A)				(B)		Ratio of Observed	
	Overall				Primary Drinking		Range to PDMS (A/B)	
	Average Values		Range Observed (mg/l)		Water Standards		Fly Ash	FGD Waste
	Fly Ash	FGD Waste	Fly Ash	FGD Waste				
Arsenic	.08	0.20	0.002-.410	0.002-0.065	.05 mg/l		0.04-8.2	0.04-1.30
Barium	.34	.18	0.1-0.7	0.15-0.23	1.0 mg/l		0.1-0.7	0.15-0.23
Cadmium	.03	.01	0.002-0.193	0.002-0.020	0.01 mg/l		0.2-19.3	0.2-2
Chromium (CrVI) ^{b/}	.16	.02	0.008-0.930	.011-0.026	0.05 mg/l		0.16-18.6 ^{c/}	0.22-0.52
Lead	.01	.01	0.003-0.036	0.005	0.05 mg/l		0.06 to 0.72	0.1
Mercury	<.002	<.002	<0.002	<0.002	0.002 mg/l		<1	<1
Selenium	.05	.020	.002-0.340	0.008-0.049	0.01 mg/l		0.2 to 34	0.8-4.9
Silver	<.001	<.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.05 mg/l		<0.02	<0.02

^{a/} Ranges are shown for fly ash and FGD samples; comparisons are made to the Primary Drinking Water Standards.

^{b/} The Arthur D. Little study tested the concentration of Cr(VI), an ion of chromium.

^{c/} Since total chromium values are measured by the graphite furnace atomic absorption analysis method, these are upper limits for the Cr(VI) values.

Source: Arthur D. Little, Inc., Full-Scale Evaluation of Waste Disposal from Coal-fired Electric Generation Plants, prepared for the Air and Energy Research Laboratory of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, for the Office of Solid Waste, EPA-600-7-85-028, June 1985.

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University of Alberta Study

The University of Alberta conducted a study for EPRI that involved passing a water-based solution through a series of columns with increasing ash concentrations.¹⁸ The study results indicate that while some constituent metals were initially released or mobilized from the wastes using this method, these same constituents were attenuated in columns further along in the series. Boron, selenium, and arsenic were initially mobilized, but only boron remained mobilized to a significant extent. Arsenic and selenium interacted in successive columns such that the movement of arsenic and selenium through the system was retarded.

In addition to studying the test leachates, the University of Alberta researchers studied the fly ash itself to determine the processes that affect the migration of metal constituents. The study results indicated that some constituents are not uniformly distributed within the fly ash particles. The fly ash particles typically consist of an interior "glass" matrix covered by a relatively reactive and soluble exterior coating. The study found that arsenic and selenium were concentrated almost exclusively in the coating of the fly ash particles and thus were readily leached; the barium concentration was split evenly between the interior and exterior of the particles; about 75 percent of the cadmium and chromium were concentrated in the interior glass matrix; and almost all the lead was concentrated in the interior glass matrix and was, therefore, not readily mobilized.

The study attributed the uneven concentration of constituents in the fly ash particles to the vaporization of relatively volatile constituents during

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combustion, followed by the condensation of these constituents on the exterior of fly ash particles entrained in the flue gas. However, this study reported that lead was contained within the interior glass matrix of the fly ash particles, while the Tetra Tech study discussed earlier reported that lead was volatile and thus likely to be found on the surface of fly ash particles. Both studies reported that arsenic and selenium were found on the surface of the fly ash particles. The University of Alberta concluded that the physical and chemical characteristics of the fly ash were determined by both the chemical composition of the coal from which it came and the mechanics of fly ash formation during combustion.

The difference between the University of Alberta study and the standard leaching test studies is that the mobility of constituents was observed under a variety of conditions. A number of waste concentrations could be tested in the columns to imitate specific field conditions. (Single column extractions also possess such flexibility, but to a lesser degree.) The University of Alberta study simulated landfill conditions by allowing the laboratory leachate solution to continually change as it migrated through multiple waste columns, whereas in batch extraction tests the laboratory leachate solution is allowed to come into contact with only one ash sample.

Battelle Chemical Characterization Study

Battelle Pacific Northwest Laboratories recently completed a study for EPRI on chemical characteristics of fly ash, bottom ash, and FGD sludge.¹⁹ As part of this study, Battelle performed a comparison of the EP Toxicity Test and the TCLP test. While most of the results of the two procedures were consistent,

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differences were observed with acidic samples. One acidic fly ash EP sample had both arsenic and chromium above RCRA limits. Another acidic fly ash sample also exhibited elevated levels of arsenic and chromium, but not at levels exceeding RCRA limits. The study found, however, that the two samples showed considerably less leachability for arsenic and chromium with the TCLP, while other elements tested showed similar results from the two testing procedures. The study concluded that the difference between the two types of tests resulted from the acidic character of the samples.

Radian Corporation Study

The Radian Corporation conducted two studies for EPRI that involved testing various low-volume waste streams. In the first of these studies (published in May 1985),²⁰ Radian Corporation collected thirty-two samples on eight types of low volume wastes. These samples were tested using the EP toxicity test as well as some other testing procedures. The results of the EP toxicity test showed that the only waste stream Radian tested that exceeded the EP toxicity limits in the 1985 Radian study was untreated boiler chemical cleaning waste. Exhibit 5-5 presents the results for three samples of untreated boiler cleaning wastes. All three samples had elevated levels of chromium and cadmium, including exceedances of EP toxicity limits, and two samples of boiler cleaning wastes had elevated concentrations of lead, including an exceedance of EP limits. This study also performed EP tests on boiler cleaning wastes after neutralization in a plant treatment system. As shown in Exhibit 5-5, the two samples of treated boiler cleaning waste did not exceed EP toxicity limits for any metals.

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EXHIBIT 5-5

**EP TOXICITY ANALYSIS FOR UNTREATED
AND TREATED BOILER CHEMICAL CLEANING WASTES a/
(concentrations in mg/l)**

Untreated Boiler Cleaning Waste Type

<u>Metals</u>	<u>Maximum Allowable EP Toxicity Limits</u>	<u>Ammoniated EDTA with Inhibitor</u>	<u>Oxidizer</u>	<u>Hydrochloric Acid</u>
Silver	5.0	0.002 <u>b/</u>	0.002 <u>b/</u>	0.007
Barium	100.0	0.76	0.67	0.91
Cadmium	1.0	<u>3.0</u>	<u>3.0</u>	0.64
Chromium	5.0	4.7	4.7	<u>20.0</u>
Arsenic	5.0	0.006	0.002 <u>b/</u>	0.051
Mercury	0.2	0.0002 <u>b/</u>	0.0002 <u>b/</u>	0.0042
Lead	5.0	3.6	<u>5.6</u>	0.002 <u>b/</u>
Selenium	1.0	0.002 <u>b/</u>	0.002 <u>b/</u>	0.003 <u>b/</u>

Treated Boiler Cleaning Waste Type

<u>Metals</u>	<u>Maximum Allowable EP Toxicity Limits</u>	<u>HCl+ Inhibitor, Chelant</u>	<u>Hydrochloric Acid</u>
Silver	5.0	0.042	0.033
Barium	100.0	0.40	0.25
Cadmium	1.0	0.002 <u>b/</u>	0.012
Chromium	5.0	0.001 <u>b/</u>	0.099
Arsenic	5.0	0.002 <u>b/</u>	0.002 <u>b/</u>
Mercury	0.2	0.0002 <u>b/</u>	0.0002 <u>b/</u>
Lead	5.0	0.002 <u>b/</u>	0.002 <u>b/</u>
Selenium	1.0	0.002 <u>b/</u>	0.002 <u>b/</u>

a/ All underlined values exceed maximum allowable limits under current RCRA regulations for hazardous wastes.

b/ Values shown are detection limits. Actual values could be less than, but no greater than, the indicated value.

Source: Electric Power Research Institute, Characterization of Utility Low-Volume Wastes, Radian Corporation, May 1985.

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In Radian Corporation's second study of low-volume wastes (published in July 1987),²¹ they collected additional data on certain low-volume waste streams that the first study indicated might have high concentrations of metals. As shown in Exhibit 5-6, eight of twenty-one samples of low-volume liquid wastes from coal-fired plants were found to exceed EP toxicity limits. For boiler chemical cleaning wastes, 7 of 10 samples exceeded EP toxicity limits for at least one constituent. Six of the boiler chemical cleaning waste exceedances were for chromium and the remaining exceedance was for lead. One wastewater brine sample out of five tested samples exceeded the EP limits for selenium. There were no reported EP exceedances for waterside rinses or coal pile runoff.

Radian Corporation also conducted EP Toxicity tests on low-volume waste sludges. None of the three samples from coal-fired power plants were considered EP Toxic, including a boiler chemical cleaning waste sludge. For the two wastewater pond sludges, the study compared the EP and TCLP testing procedures. Results of the EP and TCLP tests are shown in Exhibit 5-7. The two extraction procedures produced nearly identical concentrations of metals in their extracts.

As in their first study, the Radian Corporation also sampled low-volume wastes that had been treated. This study found significant reductions in concentrations of chromium, copper, iron, nickel and zinc after hydrochloric acid boiler cleaning waste was neutralized.

The study also examined the treatment effectiveness of co-disposal of low-volume wastes with high-volume wastes. Results of EP toxicity tests on co-disposal mixtures found that co-disposal significantly reduced concentrations of contaminants in the co-disposed mixture. Results of the EP tests are

EXHIBIT 5-6

EP TOXICITY TEST RESULTS FOR LIQUID LOW-VOLUME WASTES

(mg/l)

ELEMENT	Toxicity Limit	EP	Boiler			Waterside Rinses			Coal Pile Runoff			Wastewater Brines		
			# of Tests	Range	Mean	# of Tests	Range	Mean	# of Tests	Range	Mean	# of Tests	Range	Mean
Arsenic	5.0		10	.002-0.36	0.112	3	0.01-0.018	0.014	3	0.002-0.006	0.003	5	0.019-0.52	0.194
Barium	100.0		10	0.022-2.6	0.629	3	0.005-0.097	0.064	3	0.04-0.078	0.034	5	0.1-0.18	0.134
Cadmium	1.0		10	0.002-0.21	0.181	3	0.002-0.04	0.015	3	0.001-0.004	0.002	5	0.002-0.04	0.019
Chromium	5.0		10	0.02-35	<u>8.467</u> 1/	3	0.028-0.77	0.303	3	0.005-0.005	0.005	5	0.005-0.31	0.148
Lead	5.0		10	0.008-23	<u>2.603</u> 2/	3	0.002-0.46	0.181	3	0.002-0.08	0.032	5	0.002-0.002	0.002
Mercury	0.2		10	.0002-0.0039	0.001	3	0.002-0.0002	0.0002	3	0.0002-0.0003	0.0003	5	0.0002-0.025	0.005
Selenium	1.0		10	.002-.002	0.002	3	0.002-0.002	0.002	3	0.002-0.002	0.002	5	0.002- <u>1.5</u>	0.314 4/
Silver	5.0		10	.001-0.2	0.065	3	0.002-0.02	0.011	3	0.012-0.0023	0.002	5	0.002-0.03	0.013
ph (units)	2.5-12.5		8	<u>1.01</u> -10.8	5.6 3/	2	9.3-9.4	9.35	3	3.1-9.3	6.9	4	4.6-4.9	4.75

1/ 6 of 10 tests exceeded RCRA limits; all underlined values indicate a measurement in excess of the allowable RCRA limits.

2/ 1 of 10 tests exceeded RCRA limits; all underlined values indicate a measurement in excess of the allowable RCRA limits.

3/ 3 of 8 tests were outside RCRA limits; all underlined values indicate a measurement in excess of the allowable RCRA limits.

4/ 1 of the 5 tests exceeded RCRA limits; all underlined values indicate a measurement in excess of the allowable RCRA limits.

NOTE: Boiler Cleaning Wastes include EDTA, Hydrochloric Acid, Bromate, Citric Acid, and Hydroxyacetic/formic acid..

Waterside Rinses are wastes resulting from washing the boiler and other plant equipment.

Wastewater Brines are produced during treatment of water-based low volume wastes.

Source: Manual for Management of Low-Volume Wastes From Fossil-Fuel-Fired Power Plants, Electric Power Research Institute, prepared by Radian Corporation, Austin, Texas, July 1987.

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EXHIBIT 5-7

COMPARISON OF EP AND TCLP EXTRACTIONS FOR
LOW-VOLUME SLUDGE DREDGED FROM WASTEWATER PONDS
(mg/l)

<u>ELEMENT</u>	<u>RCRA Limit</u>	<u># of Tests</u>	<u>EP Test</u>		<u>TCLP Test</u>	
			<u>Range</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Range</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Arsenic	5.0	2	0.002-0.015	0.0085	0.004-0.016	0.010
Barium	100.0	2	0.045-0.12	0.0825	0.07-0.089	0.080
Cadmium	1.0	2	0.002-0.002	0.002	0.002-0.002	0.002
Chromium	5.0	2	0.01-0.011	0.0105	0.018-0.023	0.021
Lead	5.0	2	0.002-0.006	0.004	0.002-0.16	0.081
Mercury	0.2	2	.0002-0.0002	0.0002	0.0002-0.0002	0.0002
Selenium	1.0	2	.003-0.0003	0.003	0.003-0.03	0.017
Silver	5.0	2	0.002-0.004	0.003	0.009-0.012	0.011

Source: Manual for Management of Low-Volume Wastes From Fossil-Fuel-Fired Power Plants, Electric Power Research Institute, prepared by Radian Corporation, Austin, Texas, July 1987.

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presented in Exhibit 5-8 for co-disposal with fly ash from three geographic areas.

5.1.2.3 Summary of Extraction Test Results

In conclusion, the results of these studies indicate that coal combustion utility wastes may leach several elements, including PDWS constituents. While a variety of extraction procedures were used in these studies, and questions have been raised about the applicability of certain testing methods to coal combustion wastes (which are generally disposed on-site in monofills), all of the extraction procedures used in the studies (EP, TCLP, ASTM, and column) produced average concentrations of constituents that were below the EP toxic level for all waste streams except untreated boiler cleaning waste. In the 1987 Radian Corporation study, untreated boiler cleaning wastes had a mean concentration 169 times the PDWS for chromium using the EP Toxicity test.

For the high-volume waste streams, cadmium, arsenic, and chromium were the only elements for which a maximum concentration was found that was over 100 times the PDWS. Arsenic and chromium were above EP toxicity limits based on EP tests for one acidic fly ash sample in the Battelle chemical characterization study. These were the only exceedances based on 23 samples. Cadmium was found at a concentration 150 times the PDWS in calcium-based dry scrubber sludge leachate and at a concentration 140 times the PDWS in some coal ash leachate as reported in the Tetra Tech study; these leachates were extracted using the EP test method. For both types of waste, however, the exceedances represented the maximum concentrations; all averages of cadmium concentration levels were below 100 times the PDWS. In fact, the geometric mean of cadmium in coal ash

EXHIBIT 5-8

EP TOXICITY TEST RESULTS OF LOW VOLUME
WASTES BEFORE AND AFTER CO-DISPOSAL*
(mg/L)

Midwestern Bituminous Coal Fly Ash

<u>ELEMENT</u>	<u>RCRA</u> <u>Limit</u>	<u>Fly Ash Waste</u>	<u>EDTA</u> <u>Waste</u>	<u>EDTA Waste</u> <u>Co-disposed</u> <u>With Ash</u>	<u>Citrate</u> <u>Waste</u>	<u>Citrate Waste</u> <u>Co-disposed</u> <u>With Ash</u>	<u>General</u> <u>Wastewater</u>	<u>Wastewater</u> <u>Co-disposed</u> <u>With Ash</u>
Arsenic	5.0	0.006	0.006	0.026	0.21	0.037	0.003	0.031
Barium	100.0	0.006	0.76	0.23	1.6	0.006	1.2	0.17
Cadmium	1.0	0.02	3	0.02	0.64	0.02	0.008	0.02
Chromium	5.0	0.01	4.7	0.01	3.9	0.01	0.11	0.01
Lead	5.0	0.002	3.6	0.008	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002
Mercury	0.2	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002
Selenium	1.0	0.028	0.002	0.006	0.003	0.002	0.003	0.002
Silver	5.0	0.02	0.002	0.02	0.006	0.02	0.009	0.02

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Southeastern Bituminous Coal Fly Ash

<u>ELEMENT</u>	<u>RCRA</u> <u>Limit</u>	<u>Fly Ash Waste</u>	<u>EDTA</u> <u>Waste</u>	<u>EDTA Waste</u> <u>Co-disposed</u> <u>With Ash</u>	<u>Citrate</u> <u>Waste</u>	<u>Citrate Waste</u> <u>Co-disposed</u> <u>With Ash</u>	<u>General</u> <u>Wastewater</u>	<u>Wastewater</u> <u>Co-disposed</u> <u>With Ash</u>
Arsenic	5.0	0.037	0.006	0.036	0.21	N/A	0.003	0.042
Barium	100.0	N/A	0.76	0.33	1.6	0.006	1.2	0.47
Cadmium	1.0	0.02	3	0.02	0.64	0.02	0.008	0.085
Chromium	5.0	0.036	4.7	0.01	3.9	0.15	0.11	0.01
Lead	5.0	0.002	3.6	0.002	0.002	0.004	0.002	0.023
Mercury	0.2	0.0002	0.0002	0.0003	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002
Selenium	1.0	0.003	0.002	0.015	0.003	0.082	0.003	0.003
Silver	5.0	0.02	0.002	0.02	0.006	0.02	0.009	0.02

EXHIBIT 5-8 (Continued)

EP TOXICITY TEST RESULTS OF LOW VOLUME
WASTES BEFORE AND AFTER CODISRUSSAL
(mg/L)

Western Subbituminous Coal Fly Ash

ELEMENT	RCRA Limit	Fly Ash Waste	EDTA Waste	EDTA Waste		Citrate Waste	Citrate Waste		General Wastewater	Wastewater Co-disposed With Ash	
				Co-disposed	With Ash		Co-disposed	With Ash			
Arsenic	5.0	0.006	0.006	0.08	0.21	0.21	0.45	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003
Barium	100.0	0.94	0.76	0.7	1.6	1.6	0.43	1.2	1.2	0.8	0.8
Cadmium	1.0	0.02	3	0.02	0.64	0.64	0.02	0.008	0.008	0.02	0.02
Chromium	5.0	0.01	4.7	0.01	3.9	3.9	0.01	0.11	0.11	0.01	0.01
Lead	5.0	0.002	3.6	0.041	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002
Mercury	0.2	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002
Selenium	1.0	0.034	0.002	0.026	0.003	0.003	0.031	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003
Silver	5.0	0.02	0.002	0.02	0.006	0.006	0.02	0.009	0.009	0.02	0.02

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*All underlined values indicate an exceedance of the current RCRA limit for hazardous wastes.

Source: Manual for Management of Low-Volume Wastes From Fossil-Fuel-Fired Power Plants, Electric Power Research Institute,
prepared by Radian Corporation, Austin, Texas, July 1987.

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leachates in the Tetra Tech study was just under 0.5 of the PDWS.

For the low-volume waste streams, the only exceedance of EP toxicity limits for wastes other than boiler cleaning waste was one wastewater brine sample that had selenium at 150 times the PDWS. The mean concentration of selenium in the wastewater brine samples was below EP toxicity limits. While untreated boiler cleaning wastes had exceedances of EP toxicity limits for chromium and lead, as noted above, EP toxicity tests on neutralized boiler cleaning wastes and on boiler cleaning wastes co-disposed with fly ash showed no exceedances of EP limits.

5.2 EFFECTIVENESS OF WASTE CONTAINMENT AT UTILITY DISPOSAL SITES

Coal combustion wastes contain trace elements that at certain levels could pose a potential danger to human health and the environment if they migrate from the disposal area. The extraction procedure tests described in Section 5.1.2 indicate that these trace elements may leach out of disposed wastes, although rarely at concentrations greater than 100 times the PDWS. This section of the report analyzes studies of ground-water and surface-water quality at and around utility disposal sites to ascertain whether potentially hazardous constituents that leach out of the waste migrate into surrounding ground water or surface water. The studies discussed in this section use as a measure of water quality the concentration of Primary Drinking Water Standards (PDWS) and Secondary Drinking Water Standards (SDWS) constituents in the water around utility waste disposal sites. Primary and Secondary Drinking Water Standards were established in the Safe Drinking Water Act. Primary Drinking Water Standards establish concentration limits for toxic constituents. Secondary Drinking Water Standards

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are based on aesthetic characteristics such as taste, color, and odor. Exhibit 5-9 shows the current PDWS and SDWS. If ground water and surface water downgradient from waste disposal sites have concentrations of constituents in excess of PDWS or SDWS, and upgradient concentrations are below the standards or are lower than the downgradient concentrations, the coal combustion waste could be one of the sources contributing to ground water or surface water contamination.

EPA has conducted a number of studies on the quality of ground water in the immediate vicinity of utility disposal sites. Arthur D. Little performed extensive ground-water monitoring at six utility disposal sites. In a second study, Franklin Associates compiled data from state records on ground-water quality in the vicinity of 66 utility disposal sites. This section also reviews and evaluates a study conducted by Envirosphere for USWAG on available data on ground-water quality at 23 electric utility sites to evaluate whether and to what extent occurrences of ground-water contamination have resulted from the disposal of coal combustion wastes.

5.2.1 ADL Study of Waste Disposal at Coal-Fired Power Plants

Arthur D. Little, Inc. (ADL), conducted a three-year study for EPA's Office of Research and Development to assess the environmental effects and engineering costs associated with coal ash and flue gas desulfurization waste disposal practices at six coal-fired power plants.²² Appendix E contains a detailed discussion of the study, including how the six sampled sites were selected, the study approach, and results for each site. A summary of the six sites is presented below:

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EXHIBIT 5-9

PRIMARY DRINKING WATER STANDARDS

<u>Contaminant</u>	<u>Concentration (mg/l)</u>
Arsenic	0.05
Barium	1.0
Cadmium	0.01
Chromium	0.05
Fluoride	4.0
Lead	0.05
Mercury	0.002
Nitrate (as N)	10.0
Selenium	0.01
Silver	0.05

SECONDARY DRINKING WATER STANDARDS

<u>Contaminant</u>	<u>Level</u>
Chloride	250 mg/l
Color	15 color units
Copper	1.0 mg/l
Corrosivity	Noncorrosive
Foaming Agents	0.5 mg/l
Iron	0.3 mg/l
Manganese	0.05 mg/l
Odor	3 Threshold odor number
pH	6.5 - 8.5
Sulfate	250 mg/l
Total Dissolved Solids	500 mg/l
Zinc	5.0 mg/l

Source: 40 CFR 141 and 143, September 1, 1986.

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- The Allen Plant in North Carolina disposed of a mixture of fly ash and bottom ash in two unlined disposal ponds, one closed and one in active use. Intermittent waste streams, such as boiler wastes and coal pile runoff, were also disposed in the ponds. While concentrations of trace elements in downgradient ground water were higher than upgradient concentrations, exceedances of the Primary Drinking Water Standards were not found. Elevated concentrations of arsenic (up to 31 times the PDWS) were found in fluids within the active ash pond. Attenuation tests indicated that the arsenic concentrations would be chemically attenuated by iron and manganese in the soils beneath and surrounding the site. Ground-water contamination, particularly from arsenic, could have resulted if these attenuative soils had not been present. Secondary Drinking Water Standards were exceeded in both the upgradient and downgradient ground water for manganese and in the downgradient ground water for iron. This was attributed to high concentrations of these elements present in the soils of the site. Steady-state conditions have probably not been achieved at the Allen site; increases in downgradient ground-water concentrations of non-attenuated contaminants may be expected in the future.
- The Elrama Plant in western Pennsylvania disposed a fixated FGD sludge-fly ash mixture, along with small volumes of bottom ash and sludge from coal pile runoff treatment ponds, in an abandoned coal-mining area 12 miles from the plant. Part of the landfill is underlain by acid-producing spoils from the strip mining of coal. Cadmium was found in concentrations exceeding the Primary Drinking Water Standard by as much as 20 times in downgradient ground water; the highest concentration was found in the well closest to the landfill. There were no upgradient exceedances for cadmium. Steady-state conditions did not appear to have been achieved at the site, so that effects of leachate from the landfill may be expected to increase with time. Secondary Drinking Water Standards (for pH, manganese, sulfate, and iron) were exceeded at the site in both upgradient and downgradient ground water. These exceedances probably occurred because of characteristics of the disposal area and because ground water was already contaminated from acid mine drainage. Test results indicated that any constituent migration from the landfill did not measurably affect the water quality of the nearby Youghiogheny River.

Arsenic was repeatedly detected at levels three to five times the Primary Drinking Water Standard in pond liquors, but appeared to be attenuated by soils at the site. This suggests the possibility that similar wastes

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at other sites could leach arsenic at higher levels if arsenic were not attenuated by surrounding soils or diluted before reaching drinking water.

The results discussed above indicate that the fixated FGD/fly ash wastes have been, and will continue to be, a source of contamination at the site. Because exceedances for many contaminants were probably due to concurrent contamination from acid mine drainage, leachate from coal combustion waste may have only a small incremental impact on water quality.

- The Dave Johnston plant in Wyoming is located in an arid region with little ground-water recharge. The plant is the oldest of the six sites, and burns low-sulfur western coal. There are a number of disposal areas at the site; the ADL study investigated two unlined fly ash landfills, one active and one closed. Exceedances of the Primary Drinking Water Standards for cadmium (up to 3 times the PDWS) were found in ground water upgradient and downgradient of the site. Cadmium was found at elevated concentrations in pond liquors and ground water beneath the wastes. Exceedances of Secondary Drinking Water Standards for manganese and sulfate were also observed in downgradient and upgradient ground water. These two contaminants and boron were found in elevated concentrations in ground water beneath the waste and in pond liquors. No samples were analyzed for the presence of arsenic in the pond liquors. Chemical attenuation by soils at the site was found to be low for trace metals such as arsenic. Interpretations of the sampling results were difficult to make because other potential contamination sources exist, such as other waste disposal areas at the site (the location and ages of which are uncertain) and contaminants naturally occurring in the soil, which is highly mineralized around the Johnston site; and uncertainties with regard to what degree leachate from the two landfills had reached the downgradient wells. Contamination from the site could possibly increase until steady-state concentrations are reached.
- The Sherburne County Plant in central Minnesota disposed of fly ash and FGD waste in one clay-lined pond and bottom ash in an adjacent clay-lined pond. Exceedances of the Primary Drinking Water Standards were observed in both upgradient and downgradient ground water for cadmium (up to 2 times the PDWS for both) and for nitrate, and in downgradient ground water for chromium (up to 1.2 times the PDWS). Pond liquors were found to exhibit high concentrations of several constituents, including cadmium (up to 30 times the PDWS), chromium (up to 16 times the PDWS), fluoride, nitrate, lead (up to 28 times the PDWS), and selenium (up to 25 times the PDWS). While the pond

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liquors exhibited high concentrations of contaminants, leachate from these wastes did not appear to have migrated into and mixed with ground water to a great extent. Ground-water samples collected at the site seemed to indicate that a few constituents (sulfate and boron) had migrated from the wastes, but not at levels exceeding SDWS. The clay liner appeared to have significantly reduced the rate of release of leachate from the disposal ponds, precluding the development of elevated trace metal concentrations at downgradient wells. Over time, downgradient wells will likely show increased levels of contamination, since steady-state conditions had not been achieved between leachate from the landfill and the ground water. Without the clay liner, the leachate seepage rate would probably have been much greater. Since the surrounding soils may not chemically attenuate selenium, this contaminant might cause PDWS exceedances once steady-state concentrations in ground water are reached.

- The Powerton Plant disposed fly ash, bottom ash, and slag in an older landfill approximately one mile south of the site. In a newer portion of the landfill, disposal operations consisted of disposing intermixed fly ash and slag. The newer landfill and part of the older one are underlain by a liner consisting of ash and lime. The downgradient ground-water wells exhibited levels of cadmium up to three times the Primary Drinking Water Standard and, in one sample, lead at four times the PDWS. An upgradient well, located on the border of the landfill wastes, exhibited a concentration of cadmium at the level of the Primary Drinking Water Standard. Secondary Drinking Water Standards for iron, manganese, and sulfate were exceeded in downgradient wells, and for manganese in an upgradient well (but at a level of exceedance lower than the downgradient measurements). These results indicate that leaching and migration of ash wastes had occurred at the site, but it was difficult to determine the effect the leachate had, or will have, on ground-water quality. Dilution and chemical attenuation may have prevented the buildup at downgradient locations of significant concentrations of trace metals such as arsenic and selenium. The degree to which Lost Creek, a nearby downgradient stream, was diluting waste constituents that reach it may be significant.
- The Lansing Smith plant in southern Florida disposed a mixture of fly ash and bottom ash in an unlined disposal pond located in a coastal area. Concentrations greater than the Primary Drinking Water Standards were observed for cadmium (up to five times the PDWS), chromium (up to four times the PDWS), and fluoride in the downgradient ground water at the site and, with the possible exception

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of fluoride, appeared to be due largely to the leaching of the ponded ash wastes. Exceedances of Secondary Drinking Water Standards for sulfate, chloride, manganese, and iron were also observed in downgradient ground water. However, most of these contaminants are seawater-related and their reported concentrations appeared to be influenced by the use of seawater in plant operations and infiltration of estuarine (saline) water at the site. The leachate generated migrates to a shallow, unused, tidal aquifer. These results indicate that ash disposal at this site appears to have had a measurable impact on ground-water quality. Health risks at this particular site, however, were probably minimal since the ground water and surface water were not used as a source of drinking water.

5.2.1.1 Ground-water Sampling

Exhibits 5-10 and 5-11 summarize the results of the ADL ground-water quality data at the six disposal sites for constituents with established Primary and Secondary Drinking Water Standards, respectively. As can be seen from Exhibit 5-10:

- One site had no exceedances of PDWS constituents, either upgradient or downgradient.
- One site had PDWS exceedances for cadmium only, with the same maximum PDWS exceedance upgradient and downgradient.
- One site had downgradient PDWS exceedances for cadmium, chromium, and nitrate, but for cadmium and nitrate the upgradient exceedances were at least as large as the downgradient exceedances. There were no upgradient exceedances of chromium; the one downgradient exceedance was 1.2 times PDWS.
- The three remaining sites had downgradient PDWS exceedances for cadmium that were more frequent and larger than upgradient exceedances. The largest downgradient exceedance for cadmium at any of the six sites was 20 times the PDWS.
- There were no upgradient chromium exceedances and only three exceedances out of 94 downgradient observations. Two of the downgradient exceedances were 1.2 times the PDWS and one was 4 times the PDWS. These three exceedances were at three different sites.

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EXHIBIT 5-10

SUMMARY OF ARTHUR D. LITTLE'S GROUND-WATER
QUALITY DATA ON PRIMARY DRINKING WATER EXCEEDANCES

Units = ppm		Allen Site				New Elrama Site				Dave Johnston Site			
PDWS		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/	
		Downgradient		Upgradient		Downgradient		Upgradient		Downgradient		Upgradient	
		(11 wells)		(1 well)		(5 wells)		(1 well)		(3 wells)		(2 wells)	
2/ Drinking		3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/
Contam.	Water	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.
	Standard	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.
Arsenic	0.05	0/12		0/2		0/1		0/2		0/2		0/3	
(liq.)													
Barium	1	0/31		0/3		0/19		0/4		0/9		0/6	
Cadmium	0.01	0/31		0/3		3/19	20	0/4		6/9	3	3/6	3
Chromium	0.05	0/31		0/3		1/19	1.2	0/4		0/9		0/6	
(Cr VI)													
Fluoride	4.0	0/34		0/4		0/21		0/4		0/12		0/8	
Lead	0.05	0/31		0/3		0/19		0/4		0/9		0/6	
Mercury	0.002	0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0	
Nitrate 5/	45	0/34		0/4		0/20		0/4		0/12		0/8	
Selenium	0.1	0/5		0/2		0/1		0/2		0/2		0/3	
(liq.)													
Silver	0.05	0/31		0/3		0/19		0/4		0/9		0/9	

1/ For specific site descriptions, including lists and maps of wells used for data, see Appendix E.

2/ Where the reported detection limit for a contaminant was greater than the drinking water standard and the sample contained less contaminant than the reported detection limit, the sample is tabulated as being below the drinking water standard. For a more detailed explanation, see Appendix E.

3/ The number of samples with reported concentrations above the drinking water standard (slash) the total number of samples.

4/ Max. Exceed. is the concentration of the greatest reported exceedance divided by the drinking water standard for that particular contaminant.

5/ The PDWS for nitrate measured as N is 10 ppm.

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EXHIBIT 5-10 (Continued)

SUMMARY OF ARTHUR D. LITTLE'S GROUND-WATER
QUALITY DATA ON PRIMARY DRINKING WATER EXCEEDANCES

Units = ppm		Sherburne County Site				Powerton Station Site				Lansing Smith Steam Plant			
PDWS		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/	
		Downgradient		Upgradient		Downgradient		Upgradient		Downgradient		Upgradient	
		(3 wells)		(2 wells)		(3 wells)		(1 well)		(5 wells)		(3 wells)	
2/ Drinking		3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/
Contam.	Water	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.
	Standard	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.
Arsenic (liq.)	0.05	0/3		0/3		0/8		0/2		0/5		0/4	
Barium	1	0/12		0/8		0/9		0/4		0/14		0/6	
Cadmium	0.01	2/12	2	2/8	2	8/9	3	2/4	1	10/14	5	2/6	2
Chromium (Cr VI)	0.05	1/12	1.2	0/8		0/9		0/4		1/14	4	0/6	
Fluoride	4.0	0/12		0/8		0/9		0/4		5/14	13.5	0/6	
Lead	0.05	0/12		0/8		1/9	4	0/4		0/14		0/6	
Mercury	0.002	0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0	
Nitrate 5/	45	2/12	1.1	2/8	27	0/9		2/4	1.1	0/0		0/0	
Selenium (liq.)	0.1	0/3		0/3		0/8		0/2		0/5		0/4	
Silver	0.05	0/12		0/8		0/9		0/4		0/14		0/6	

1/ For specific site descriptions, including lists and maps of wells used for data, see Appendix E.

2/ Where the reported detection limit for a contaminant was greater than the drinking water standard and the sample contained less contaminant than the reported detection limit, the sample is tabulated as being below the drinking water standard. For a more detailed explanation, see Appendix E.

3/ The number of samples with reported concentrations above the drinking water standard (slash) the total number of samples.

4/ Max. Exceed. is the concentration of the greatest reported exceedance divided by the drinking water standard for that particular contaminant.

5/ The PDWS for nitrate measured as N is 10 ppm.

5-37

EXHIBIT 5-11

SUMMARY OF ARTHUR D. LITTLE'S GROUND-WATER QUALITY
DATA ON SECONDARY DRINKING WATER EXCEEDANCES

Units = ppm		Allen Site				New Elrama Site				Dave Johnston Site			
SDWS		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/	
		Downgradient	Upgradient	Downgradient	Upgradient	Downgradient	Upgradient	Downgradient	Upgradient	Downgradient	Upgradient	Downgradient	Upgradient
		(11 wells)	(1 well)	(5 wells)	(1 well)	(3 wells)	(2 wells)						
2/ Drinking		3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/	3/ 4/
Contam.	Water	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.
	Standard	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.
Chloride	250	0/34		0/4		0/21		0/4		0/12		0/8	
Copper	1	0/31		0/3		0/19		0/4		0/9		0/6	
Iron	0.3	7/31	82	0/3		0/19		1/4	1.8	0/9		0/6	
Manganese	0.05	19/31	102	1/3	1.4	19/19	456	4/4	197	1/9	3.2	1/6	4.6
Sulfate	250	0/34		0/3		9/19	4.7	3/4	1.5	12/12	5.8	4/8	5.1
Zinc	5	0/31		0/3		0/19		0/4		0/9		0/6	
pH Lab 5/	<=6.5	10/10	4.7	1/1	5.9	0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0	
	>=8.5	0/10		0/1		0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0	
pH Field 5/	<=6.5	21/28	4.4	2/3	6.2	9/14	5.2	2/2	4.5	0/9		0/6	
	>=8.5	0/28		0/3		0/14		0/2		0/9		0/6	

1/ For specific site descriptions, including lists and maps of the wells used for data, see Appendix E.

2/ Where the reported detection limit for a contaminant was greater than the drinking water standard and the sample contained less contaminant than the reported detection limit, the sample is tabulated as being below the drinking water standard. For a more detailed explanation, see Appendix E.

3/ The number of samples with reported concentrations above the drinking water standard (slash) the total number of samples.

4/ Max. Exceed. is the concentration of the greatest reported exceedance divided by the drinking water standard for that particular contaminant. The only exception is for pH, where Max. Exceed. is the actual measurement.

5/ As indicated in footnote 15, the Max. Exceed column for the reported pH measurements is a tabulation of the actual measurements, not the maximum exceedance divided by the drinking water standard.

5-38

EXHIBIT 5-11 (Continued)

SUMMARY OF ARTHUR D. LITTLE'S GROUND-WATER QUALITY
DATA ON SECONDARY DRINKING WATER EXCEEDANCES

Units = ppm		Sherburne County Site				Powerton Station Site				Lansing Smith Steam Plant			
SDWS		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/	
		Downgradient (3 wells)		Upgradient (2 wells)		Downgradient (3 wells)		Upgradient (1 well)		Downgradient (5 wells)		Upgradient (3 wells)	
2/ Drinking		3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/
Contam.	Water	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.
Standard		Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.
Chloride	250	0/12		0/8		0/9		0/4		14/14	22.4	0/6	
Copper	1	0/12		0/8		0/9		0/4		0/14		0/6	
Iron	0.3	0/12		1/8	1.9	4/9	42	0/4		14/14	118	6/6	37
Manganese	0.05	2/12	22	1/8	1.4	9/9	194	2/4	11	13/14	17.2	2/6	1.4
Sulfate	250	0/12		0/8		6/9	2.7	0/4		8/14	8.4	0/6	
Zinc	5	0/12		0/8		0/9		0/4		0/14		0/6	
pH Lab 5/	<=6.5	0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0		4/6	4.4	1/2	6.5
	>=8.5	0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0		0/6		0/2	
pH Field 5/	<=6.5	0/8		0/6		1/9	6	0/3		10/13	2.9	4/6	6
	>=8.5	0/8		0/6		0/9		0/3		0/13		0/6	

1/ For specific site descriptions, including lists and maps of the wells used for data, see Appendix E.

2/ Where the reported detection limit for a contaminant was greater than the drinking water standard and the sample contained less contaminant than the reported detection limit, the sample is tabulated as being below the drinking water standard. For a more detailed explanation, see Appendix E.

3/ The number of samples with reported concentrations above the drinking water standard (slash) the total number of samples.

4/ Max. Exceed. is the concentration of the greatest reported exceedance divided by the drinking water standard for that particular contaminant. The only exception is for pH, where Max. Exceed. is the actual measurement.

5/ As indicated in footnote 15, the Max. Exceed column for the reported pH measurements is a tabulation of the actual measurements, not the maximum exceedance divided by the drinking water standard.

5-39

- One site had downgradient PDWS exceedances for fluoride in 5 of 14 samples. The maximum exceedance was 13.5 times the PDWS. There were no upgradient PDWS exceedances for fluoride at any of the six sites.
- There were no lead exceedances upgradient and only one PDWS exceedance out of 94 downgradient observations at 4 times the PDWS.
- The contaminants of most concern at the six sites appear to be cadmium and, to a lesser extent, chromium. For both of these contaminants, three sites had exceedances of the PDWS in downgradient ground water at levels higher than were found in upgradient ground water.

For constituents for which there are Secondary Drinking Water Standards, exceedances in downgradient ground water generally were higher than levels observed in upgradient wells. Results are shown in Exhibit 5-11.

5.2.1.2 Surface Water Sampling

Exhibit 5-12 summarizes the results of surface-water quality data obtained by ADL at background, peripheral, and downstream locations at three of the study sites -- Elrama, Powerton, and Lansing Smith -- for constituents with established Primary and Secondary Drinking Water Standards. Examination of these results for PDWS constituents indicates that:

- At the Lansing Smith site, downgradient and peripheral surface water samples showed cadmium concentrations up to 5 times the PDWS, chromium concentrations up to 1.2 times the PDWS, and fluoride concentrations up to 20 times the PDWS. No upgradient samples were collected at the Lansing Smith site.
- Exceedances were found for cadmium (up to 2 times the PDWS) and nitrate (up to 1.2 times the PDWS) in both upgradient and downgradient surface water at the Powerton site. The exceedances were similar in upgradient and downgradient samples both in terms of the proportion of samples in which exceedances were found and the magnitude of the exceedances.

5-40

EXHIBIT 5-12

SUMMARY OF ARTHUR D. LITTLE'S SURFACE-WATER QUALITY DATA
ON PRIMARY AND SECONDARY DRINKING WATER EXCEEDANCES

Units = ppm		New Elrama Site				Powerton Station Site				Lansing Smith Steam Plant				
PDWS		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/
		Downgradient		Upgradient		Downgradient		Upgradient		Downgradient		Peripheral		Downgradient
		(4 stations)		(1 station)		(1 station)		(3 stations)		(6 stations)		(3 stations)		Saline
														(2 stations)
2/ Drinking		3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/	4/	3/
Contam.	Water	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./
	Standard	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total
														Total
														Exceed.
Arsenic (liq.)	0.05	0/1		0/1		0/1		0/2		0/2		0/1		0/3
Barium	1	0/7		0/3		0/3		0/8		0/13		0/8		0/5
Cadmium	0.01	0/7		0/3		2/3	2	5/8	2	10/13	5	4/8	4	5/5
														4
Chromium (Cr VI)	0.05	0/7		0/3		0/3		0/8		0/13		0/8		1/5
														1.2
Fluoride	4.0	0/7		0/3		0/3		0/8		5/13	6.5	2/8	2	2/5
														20
Lead	0.05	0/7		0/3		0/3		0/8		0/13		0/8		0/5
Mercury	0.002	0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0		0/0
Nitrate 5/	45	0/7		0/3		1/3	1.1	3/7	1.2	0/0		0/0		0/0
Selenium (liq.)	0.1	0/1		0/1		0/1		0/2		0/2		0/1		0/3
Silver	0.05	0/7		0/3		0/3		0/8		0/13		0/8		0/5

1/ For specific site descriptions, including lists and maps of the stations used for data, see Appendix E. Peripheral stations are neither upgradient nor downgradient of the site. These stations are located across the gradient from the site, and may become contaminated by lateral dispersion of waste constituents.

2/ Where the reported detection limit for a contaminant was greater than the drinking water standard and the sample contained less contaminant than the reported detection limit, the sample is tabulated as being below the drinking water standard. For a more detailed explanation, see Appendix E.

3/ The number of samples with reported concentrations above the drinking water standard (slash) the total number of samples.

4/ Max. Exceed. is the concentration of the greatest reported exceedance divided by the drinking water standard for that particular contaminant.

5/ The PDWS for nitrate measured as N is 10 ppm.

5-41

EXHIBIT 5-12 (Continued)

SUMMARY OF ARTHUR D. LITTLE'S SURFACE-WATER QUALITY DATA
ON PRIMARY AND SECONDARY DRINKING WATER EXCEEDANCES

Units = ppm		New Elrama Site				Powerton Station Site				Lansing Smith Steam Plant				1/
SDWS		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/		1/		Downgradient
		Downgradient		Upgradient		Downgradient		Upgradient		Downgradient		Peripheral		Saline
		(4 stations)		(1 station)		(1 station)		(3 stations)		(6 stations)		(3 stations)		(2 stations)
2/ Drinking		3/ 4/		3/ 4/		3/ 4/		3/ 4/		3/ 4/		3/ 4/		3/ 4/
Contam.	Water	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./	Max.	Exceed./
Standard		Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total	Exceed.	Total
Chloride		250	0/7	0/3		0/3		0/8		13/13	11.9	5/8	10	5/5
Copper		1	0/7	0/3		0/3		0/8		0/13		0/8		0/5
Iron		0.3	0/7	0/3		0/3		0/8		11/13	370	6/8	34	0/5
Manganese		0.05	7/7	7.4	3/3	4.2	2/3	2.2	2/8	1	11/13	64	6/8	4.8
Sulfate		250	0/7	0/3		0/3		0/8		12/13	7.5	4/8	3.4	5/5
Zinc		5	0/7	0/3		0/3		0/8		0/13		0/8		0/5
pH Lab 5/		<=6.5	0/0	0/0		0/0		0/0		5/6	3.3	2/3	3.8	0/1
		>=8.5	0/0	0/0		0/0		0/0		0/6		0/3		0/1
pH Field 5/		<=6.5	4/7	6.1	2/3	6	0/3		0/8		5/10	4.1	4/7	3.4
		>=8.5	0/7	0/3		1/3	8.5	2/8	8.5	0/10		0/7		0/5

1/ For specific site descriptions, including lists and maps of the stations used for data, see Appendix E. Peripheral stations are neither upgradient nor downgradient of the site. These stations are located across the gradient from the site, and may become contaminated by lateral dispersion of waste constituents.

2/ Where the reported detection limit for a contaminant was greater than the drinking water standard and the sample contained less contaminant than the reported detection limit, the sample is tabulated as being below the drinking water standard. For a more detailed explanation, see Appendix E.

3/ The number of samples with reported concentrations above the drinking water standard (slash) the total number of samples.

4/ Max. Exceed. is the concentration of the greatest reported exceedance divided by the drinking water standard for that particular contaminant. The only exception is for pH, where Max. Exceed. is the actual measurement.

5/ As indicated in footnote 10, the Max. Exceed. column for reported pH measurements is a tabulation of the actual measurements, not the maximum exceedance divided by the drinking water standard.

5-42

- No exceedances of PDWS were found upgradient or downgradient at the Elrama site, although there had been downgradient exceedances at Elrama in ground water for cadmium and chromium.

5.2.1.3 Waste Fluid Sampling

In addition to ground-water monitoring, waste fluid samples were collected from the waste ponds at the Allen, Sherburne County, and Lansing Smith sites, and from dry fly ash landfills at the Dave Johnston site. Water from within and beneath FGD sludge and fly ash waste mixtures were collected from the Elrama landfill. No waste fluid samples were obtained at the Powerton site. Key observations are presented below.

- Arsenic was present in the waste fluids at elevated concentrations (up to 31 times the Primary Drinking Water Standard) at two of the five sites sampled. At these sites (Allen and Elrama), arsenic may be attenuated by soils at the site; attenuation tests indicate the soils had a moderate to high attenuation capacity, and no exceedances for arsenic were observed in ground water at the sites. The Dave Johnston site was the only disposal area where soils were found to have low attenuation capacities for arsenic; however, there are no data pertaining to waste fluids at this site, and exceedances for arsenic in the ground water were not observed. These results indicate that, depending on the coal source, arsenic may occur at elevated concentrations in waste fluids, but can be attenuated by soils within and surrounding a coal combustion waste disposal site. If the soils at a disposal site have low attenuation capacities for arsenic, this element may be of concern with regard to ground water and surface water contamination.
- Cadmium is present at elevated concentrations (up to 30 times the Primary Drinking Water Standard) in the waste fluids at all five sites. At Powerton, although no waste fluid samples were taken, ground-water samples obtained from directly beneath the wastes also exhibited elevated concentrations of cadmium. These results support the conclusion that elevated concentrations of cadmium observed in downgradient ground water may be attributable to coal combustion wastes.

5-43

- Chromium is present at elevated concentrations (up to 21 times the Primary Drinking Water Standard) in the waste fluids at two of the five sites. At these sites, higher chromium concentrations were found in downgradient ground water than were found in upgradient ground water. These observations suggest that ground-water contamination by chromium at these two study sites may be attributable to the coal combustion wastes. At a third site at which downgradient exceedances of chromium in ground water were observed, waste fluid samples were mixed with ground water occurring beneath the wastes during collection, which may account for lower waste fluid concentrations at this site.
- Other constituents that were found at elevated concentrations within the waste fluids include fluoride at all five sites (up to 10 times the PDWS); lead at one of five sites (up to 28 times the PDWS); nitrate at one of five sites (up to 7 times the PDWS); and selenium at one of four sites (up to 25 times the PDWS).
- Constituents for which Secondary Drinking Water Standards are established were found at the following elevated concentrations: chloride at three of five sites (up to 61 times the SDWS); iron at two of five sites (up to 221 times the SDWS); manganese at four of five sites (up to 466 times the SDWS); and sulfate at four of five sites (up to 42 times the SDWS). Exceedances of pH standards were found in the waste fluids at two of three sites tested. At these two sites, both acidic (as low as pH 5.9) and alkaline (as high as pH 11) conditions were found to exist. Average pH values measured in these waste fluids indicated that they were generally alkaline.
- Results of waste fluid sampling at the Sherburne County site showed exceedances of Primary Drinking Water Standards for cadmium (up to 30 times PDWS); chromium (up to 16 times the PDWS); fluoride (up to 13 times the PDWS); lead (up to 28 times the PDWS); nitrates (up to 6.9 times the PDWS); and selenium (up to 25 times the PDWS). Measurements also showed maximum exceedances of Secondary Drinking Water Standards for chloride (up to 1.9 times the SDWS); iron (up to 6.1 times the SDWS); manganese (up to 316 times the SDWS); and sulfate (up to 42 times the SDWS). This was the only site where disposal areas or ponds were completely lined. The clay liner appeared to have reduced the release of leachate, thereby concentrating waste constituents.

5-44

Results from waste fluid studies conducted by other organizations are described in Appendix D.

5.2.1.4 Summary

Results from the Arthur D. Little study suggest that under the waste management procedures used by the facilities studied, some coal combustion waste leachate was migrating into ground water beneath and downgradient from disposal sites. Five sites had concentrations of cadmium in downgradient ground water that exceeded the PDWS. Two of these five had maximum upgradient exceedances at the same level as the maximum downgradient exceedance, and two of the sites had upgradient concentrations that were equal to or above the PDWS, although the maximum concentration was less than the downgradient concentrations. One of the five sites had upgradient measurements of cadmium that were below the PDWS. Exceedances of chromium were detected in a few ground-water samples downgradient of three sites; there were no chromium concentrations above the PDWS in the upgradient ground water of any site. There were no detected exceedances of arsenic, barium, mercury, selenium, or silver in the ground water or surface water at any of the six sites. In total, approximately 5 percent of the downgradient observations exceeded the PDWS.

5.2.2 Franklin Associates Survey of State Ground-Water Data

EPA commissioned Franklin Associates to gather data from state regulatory agencies on the quality of ground water at or near coal-fired electric utility fly ash disposal sites.²³ The objective of this survey was to determine the level of ground-water contamination in the vicinity of disposal sites. However,

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according to the Franklin Associates report: "No attempt was made to determine what monitoring wells might be up gradient, or what wells might be down gradient, or even as to whether specific ash disposal sites were in fact contributing specific pollutants."

Franklin Associates contacted 44 states in which coal-fired facilities were located; of these 44 states, 13 provided data. The data base that was developed included data from more than 4700 well samples taken from 66 sites.

Analysis of these samples revealed 1129 exceedances of the PDWS out of more than 15,000 observations, as shown in Exhibit 5-13. Ninety-two percent of the exceedances were less than ten times the PDWS; eight of the exceedances were 100 times greater than the PDWS.

There were 5952 exceedances of the SDWS out of nearly 20,000 observations as shown in Exhibit 5-14. These secondary standards were exceeded more frequently than the primary standards, and exceedances were usually greater. For example, about 77 percent of the SDWS exceedances were less than 10 times the standard (compared with 92 percent for PDWS exceedances), whereas 4 percent of the exceedances were greater than 100 times the SDWS (compared with less than one percent for PDWS exceedances).

Since this study did not compare upgradient and downgradient concentrations, it is not possible to determine whether occurrences of contamination at particular sites are the result of utility waste disposal practices or background levels of contaminants.

5-46

EXHIBIT 5-13

SUMMARY OF PDWS EXCEEDANCES IN THE FRANKLIN ASSOCIATES SURVEY

<u>Constituent</u>	<u>Total Observations</u>	<u>Number of Observations Exceeding PDWS By</u>			<u>Highest Exceedance (X PDWS)</u>
		<u>1 X</u>	<u>10 X</u>	<u>100 X</u>	
Arsenic	1995	94	0	0	9.8
Barium	1353	108	9	0	44.0
Cadmium	1733	126	16	1	531.0
Chromium	1863	92	5	0	50.2
Fluoride	995	28	3	0	19.3
Lead	1722	243	20	1	182.0
Mercury	1282	30	8	5	500.0
Nitrate	1432	204	0	0	7.3
Selenium	2453	196	30	1	100.0
Silver	<u>530</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	8.0
TOTAL	15,358	1129	81	8	

Source: Franklin Associates, Ltd., Summary of Ground-water Contamination Cases at Coal Combustion Waste Disposal Sites, prepared for the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, March 1984.

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EXHIBIT 5-14

SUMMARY OF SDWS EXCEEDANCES IN THE FRANKLIN ASSOCIATES SURVEY

<u>Constituent</u>	<u>Total Observations</u>	<u>Number of Observations Exceeding SDWS By</u>			<u>Highest Exceedance (X SDWS)</u>
		<u>1 X</u>	<u>10 X</u>	<u>100 X</u>	
Chloride	2921	109	14	0	42.0
Copper	650	1	0	0	1.2
Iron	3140	1942	862	149	4,000.0
Manganese	1673	1050	467	80	2,400.0
pH	4107	843	-	-	-
Sulfate	4378	1059	13	0	23.2
TDS	1925	920	24	0	28.7
Zinc	<u>1175</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>0</u>	46.0
TOTAL	19,969	5952	1384	229	

Source: Franklin Associates, Ltd., Summary of Ground-water Contamination Cases at Coal Combustion Waste Disposal Sites, prepared for the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, March 1984.

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5.2.3 EnviroSphere Ground-Water Survey

In response to the temporary exemption of utility wastes from regulation under Subtitle C of RCRA, the Utility Solid Waste Activities Group (USWAG) commissioned EnviroSphere, Inc., to review information available from electric utilities on the quality of ground water at utility waste disposal sites.²⁴ EnviroSphere solicited information from 98 utilities on the number and type of constituents they monitored, the frequency with which measurements were taken, and the period of time for which they had collected ground-water monitoring data. Ninety-six of the contacted utilities responded to the request for information. From these 96 utilities, EnviroSphere selected for further study those that appeared to have adequate data on ground-water quality. These utilities were contacted and asked to provide their available data for use in EnviroSphere's study. The participating utilities (the exact number of utilities was not provided) forwarded the requested information to EnviroSphere on the 28 disposal facilities they operated. The utilities chose to withdraw three of the 28 disposal sites from the study subsequent to the analysis of the data, leaving 25 disposal sites in the data pool.

In order to analyze the data, EnviroSphere paired the measurements taken at upgradient and downgradient wells at approximately the same time and in the same aquifer.²⁵ These data were then compared to the applicable drinking water standards to determine whether the standards had been exceeded. Two disposal sites were then eliminated from further consideration because no upgradient wells could be identified. The remaining 23 disposal sites produced a total of 9,528 paired measurements of upgradient and downgradient ground-water concentrations.

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Exhibit 5-15 summarizes the information from the EnviroSphere data base for those cases where the Primary Drinking Water Standards (PDWS) were exceeded by the downgradient measurement. The most obvious indication that a waste facility is contributing to a PDWS exceedance is a measurement indicating downgradient values higher than the PDWS and upgradient values lower than the PDWS. According to EnviroSphere's report, about 1.7 percent of the data fell into this category.²⁶ For those cases in which both the upgradient and downgradient values were exceeded, EnviroSphere argued that it was difficult to attribute the exceedances to the disposal facility without further site-specific analysis. About 5 percent of the measurements fell into this category, with 60 percent of these indicating upgradient values equal to or greater than the downgradient values.

Maximum concentrations of several substances significantly exceeded the PDWS in downgradient wells: arsenic, 560 times the PDWS; lead, 480 times the PDWS; mercury, 235 times the PDWS, and selenium, 100 times the PDWS. These values must be compared to the maximum upgradient reading since some of the contamination may be unrelated to the disposal facility. As shown in Exhibit 5-15, the downgradient concentration was sometimes higher than the upgradient value even when the upgradient value exceeded the PDWS. However, exceedances of the magnitudes shown in Exhibit 5-15 comprised a small fraction of the total measurements in the EnviroSphere data base.

The EnviroSphere data also included information regarding exceedances of the Secondary Drinking Water Standards (SDWS). A summary of these data is shown in Exhibit 5-16. The data indicate that in 8.2 percent of the cases the

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EXHIBIT 5-15

SUMMARY OF PDWS EXCEEDANCES IN ENVIROSPHERE'S GROUND-WATER DATA

Constituent	Total Observations	Downgradient Observations <u>a/</u> Exceeding PDWS When:				Maximum Downgradient Observation (X PDWS) <u>b/</u>	
		Upgradient Does Not Exceed		Upgradient Exceeds			
		Number	%	Number	%		
Arsenic	588	7	1	0	0	560	(192)
Barium	298	0	0	0	0	1	(3)
Cadmium	571	59	10	9	2	6	(1)
Chromium	658	20	3	10	2	20	(76)
Lead	639	29	5	67	10	480	(220)
Mercury	575	8	1	2	<u>c/</u>	235	(9)
Selenium	489	5	1	34	7	100	(100)
Silver	<u>261</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	1	(0.2)
TOTAL	4079	128	3 <u>d/</u>	122	3 <u>d/</u>		

a/ EnviroSphere classified measurements by comparing downgradient values with upgradient values. When the downgradient value exceeded the PDWS, classification depended on whether the upgradient value also exceeded the PDWS. Both categories of measurements are shown here, although EnviroSphere focused primarily on pairs of measurements in which the downgradient value exceeded the PDWS but the upgradient value did not.

b/ Maximum downgradient value observed in the EnviroSphere data base. The corresponding paired upgradient concentrations are not available. The maximum upgradient value of all measurements at the same facility is shown in parentheses.

c/ Less than 0.5 percent.

d/ These percentages apply to the total number of observations. EnviroSphere "normalized" the data to correct for sites that had a high proportion of data points so that one site would not be overly represented; these normalized values are noted in the text of the report.

Source: EnviroSphere Company, "Report on the Ground-water Data Base Assembled by the Utility Solid Waste Activities Group," in USWAG, Report and Technical Studies on the Disposal and Utilization of Fossil-Fuel Combustion By-Products, October 26, 1982, Appendix C.

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EXHIBIT 5-16

SUMMARY OF SDWS EXCEEDANCES IN ENVIROSPHERE'S GROUND-WATER DATA

Constituent	Total Observations	Downgradient Observations <u>a/</u> Exceeding SDWS When:				Maximum Downgradient Observation (X SDWS)	b/
		Upgradient Does		Upgradient Exceeds			
		Not Exceed					
		Number	%	Number	%		
Chloride	502	4	1	7	1	22	(5)
Copper	452	9	2	0	0	2	(0.02)
Iron	964	60	6	376	39	3458	(2)
Manganese	487	157	32	143	29	474	(5)
Sulfate	1028	289	28	57	6	32	(8)
Total Dissolved Solids	908	159	18	292	32	31	(2)
Zinc	<u>387</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	1	(0.1)
TOTAL	4728	681	14 <u>c/</u>	875	19 <u>c/</u>		

a/ EnviroSphere classified measurements by comparing downgradient values with upgradient values. When the downgradient value exceeded the SDWS, classification depended on whether the upgradient value also exceeded the SDWS. Both categories of measurements are shown here, although EnviroSphere focused primarily on pairs of measurements in which the downgradient value exceeded the SDWS but the upgradient value did not.

b/ Maximum downgradient value observed in the EnviroSphere data base. The corresponding (paired) upgradient concentrations are not available. The maximum upgradient value of all measurements at the same facility is shown in parentheses.

c/ These percentages apply to the total number of observations. EnviroSphere "normalized" the data to correct for sites that had a high proportion of data points so that one site would not be overly represented; these normalized values are noted in the text of the report.

Source: EnviroSphere Company, "Report on the Ground-water Data Base Assembled by the Utility Solid Waste Activities Group," in USWAG, Report and Technical Studies on the Disposal and Utilization of Fossil-Fuel Combustion By-Products, October 26, 1982, Appendix C.

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downgradient value exceeded the SDWS while the upgradient value did not. In some cases the exceedances were substantially greater than the SDWS; e.g., the maximum observation for iron was 3458 times greater than the SDWS and manganese was 474 times greater.

In summary, the EnviroSphere ground-water data show that Primary and Secondary Drinking Water Standards were exceeded in ground water downgradient from utility waste disposal facilities. However, the percentage of cases in which constituent concentrations in downgradient wells exceeded the standards when those in upgradient wells did not was small. There are limitations in the data, due in part to the way in which they were collected (e.g., only data from those utilities that voluntarily submitted data are included in the report). There is also a limited amount of information regarding the extent to which site-specific factors, such as environmental setting characteristics or other possible sources of contamination, could have had an effect on ground-water contamination.

5.2.4 Summary

The studies described in this section demonstrate that downgradient ground-water and surface-water concentrations exceeded the PDWS and SDWS for a few constituents. In some of these downgradient exceedances, corresponding upgradient exceedances also occurred, suggesting that the contamination was not necessarily caused by the waste disposal sites. For cases in which the downgradient ground water had constituent concentrations higher than the corresponding upgradient concentrations, the PDWS exceeded most often were those for cadmium, chromium, lead, and to a lesser extent, arsenic.

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Some PDWS exceedances were quite high, e.g., up to 560 times for arsenic and 480 times for lead (see Exhibit 5-15). However, the frequency of PDWS exceedances for downgradient ground water and surface water is rather low. For example, 3.7 percent of the EnviroSphere data had downgradient ground-water concentrations of PDWS higher than those measured in upgradient wells. Three of the six Arthur D. Little sites had downgradient ground water with concentrations of constituents that were both above the PDWS and above corresponding upgradient concentrations. Although the Arthur D. Little pond liquor data show high concentrations of PDWS and SDWS constituents, in most cases the constituents appeared to be contained within the disposal area or attenuated in the surrounding soils. This is particularly true for the case of arsenic, which was detected in the waste fluids at a level 31 times the PDWS, but was not found at elevated levels in ground water or surface water. There were no exceedances of arsenic, barium, mercury, selenium, or silver in downgradient ground water at any of the six Arthur D. Little sites. The EnviroSphere study detected no exceedances of barium or silver.

5.3 EVIDENCE OF DAMAGE

This section examines documented cases in which danger to human health or the environment from surface runoff or leachate from the disposal of coal combustion wastes has been proved. The first part of this section reviews two major studies conducted for the Utility Solid Waste Activities Group (USWAG): a 1979 EnviroSphere, Inc., study and a 1982 Dames and Moore study. To supplement these two major studies, in 1987 EPA conducted a literature review of all readily-available sources, which revealed only two additional case studies on proven damages occurring in 1980 and 1981. The Agency has not identified any

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proven damage cases in the last seven years; however, no attempt was made to compile a complete census of current damage cases by conducting extensive field studies.

As with all damage cases, it is not always clear whether damages could occur under current management practices or whether they are attributable to practices no longer used. As described in Chapter Four, there has been an increased tendency in recent years for utilities to utilize mitigative technologies, including a shift to greater use of landfills rather than surface impoundments and an increased use of liners.

5.3.1 Envirosphere Case Study Analysis

The Utility Solid Waste Activities Group (USWAG) and the Edison Electric Institute (EEI) commissioned the Envirosphere Company in 1979 to investigate and document available information on the nature and extent of the impact of utility solid waste disposal on public health, welfare, and the environment.²⁷ To conduct this analysis, Envirosphere reviewed various reports, including EPA's damage incident files, environmental monitoring studies at utility disposal sites, and other research and studies as available; they contacted state regulatory agencies to determine what information was available in state files.

From its review of the available data, Envirosphere found few documented cases where utility solid waste disposal had potentially adverse environmental effects. They identified nine cases from EPA's damage incident files that appeared to show damage to the environment. Envirosphere reviewed data from environmental monitoring studies at the utility disposal sites and other

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available research, and noted that the information available on the potential impacts of utility waste disposal was inconclusive. Some data indicated "... that elevated levels of some chemical parameters have occurred at locations downgradient of some utility solid waste disposal sites." EnviroSphere concluded, however, that it was not clear to what extent these impacts could be attributed to utility solid waste disposal practices.

Some of the specific cases from EnviroSphere's sources are summarized below:

- Texas, 1977. A clay liner was improperly installed in a 14.3 acre disposal pond for metal cleaning solutions. The liner dried and cracked before wastes were introduced into the facility. After the pond was put in service, ground-water monitoring wells detected contaminant migration. Levels of selenium and chromium occasionally exceeded the PDWS for these elements, and several SDWS were exceeded. The pond was taken out of service, the liner was saturated with water, and the pond was put back into operation.
- Indiana, 1977. EnviroSphere found that leaching from two large, unlined ash disposal ponds was contributing to ground-water contamination. Arsenic and lead were found in downgradient ground water at concentrations about two times the PDWS, while concentrations of selenium were about four times the PDWS.
- Pennsylvania, 1975. A private waste handler illegally disposed fly ash in a marsh located in a tidal wetland area. Visual inspections by the state indicated marsh contamination due to fly ash leachate. When ordered to stop the dumping and clean up the site, the handler declared bankruptcy, and the ash remained in the marsh. Detailed analysis of any potential impacts has not been conducted.
- Connecticut, 1971. A municipal landfill, which was located in a marsh, accepted many substances, including large quantities of fly ash. Surveys revealed numerous SDWS contaminants, some of which appeared to be related to the ash. The site, considered unsuitable for disposal of solid waste, was closed and turned into a state park.
- Virginia, 1967. A dike surrounding a fly ash settling lagoon collapsed, and 130 million gallons of caustic solution (pH 12.0) were released into the Clinch River.

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Large numbers of fish were killed over a distance extending 90 miles from the spill site. Surveys conducted 10 days after the spill showed dramatic reductions in bottom dwelling fish food organisms for 77 miles below the release site. Virtually all such organisms were eliminated for a distance of 3 to 4 miles. The waste was eventually diluted, dispersed, and neutralized by natural physical/chemical processes. Two years after the spill, however, the river had not fully recovered.

5.3.2 Dames & Moore Study of Environmental Impacts

Dames & Moore, in a study for USWAG, conducted a survey of existing data and literature to document instances in which danger to human health and the environment was found to have occurred because of the disposal of coal combustion wastes.²⁸ Dames & Moore established criteria by which to evaluate whether a given record of a contamination incident could be considered "documented" evidence proving danger to health or the environment: 1) the report must exist in the public record; 2) the case must involve high-volume (utility) wastes; 3) information must exist to permit determination of possible health or environmental risks; and 4) the possible risks may have been caused by leachate migration or runoff from utility disposal sites.

The danger to health and the environment was examined by accounting for the types, concentrations, and locations of constituents shown to be present that could have harmful effects. In addition, Dames & Moore considered both the potential for public access to utility waste constituents and any observed effects on the population or environment. The three major data sources providing information reviewed in this study were computer data bases used to search for publicly available references; Federal Government agencies such as

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EPA, U.S. Geological Survey, and the Tennessee Valley Authority; and 12 state environmental, natural resource, health or geological agencies.

Using information from these sources, Dames & Moore identified seven cases that presented a potential danger to human health and the environment. Six of the seven cases involved potential impacts from ground water and one case involved surface water. Dames & Moore concluded that none of these cases represented a "documented" case of such danger. However, Dames & Moore eliminated several sites from the documented category because they believed sufficient data from the sites were unavailable or did not meet the selection criteria described above. Dames & Moore evaluated in detail the seven sites at which there existed a potential for adverse environmental and health effects. Their findings are summarized below.

- Chisman Creek Disposal Site, York County, Virginia. The Chisman Creek disposal area was an inactive site with four separate fly ash disposal pits on both sides of Chisman Creek. An electric utility hired a private contractor to transport and dispose of fly ash and bottom ash from petroleum coke (a residual product of the oil distillation process) and coal combustion. The site was active from the late 1950's to 1974. In 1980, nearby residential drinking water wells became green from contamination of vanadium and selenium and could no longer be used. The site is currently on the CERCLA (Superfund) National Priorities List. A minimum of 38 domestic wells and 7 monitoring wells near the four disposal sites were sampled over time. Two off-site domestic wells located 200 feet from the disposal area had elevated concentrations of vanadium, selenium, and sulfate. One of these two wells was sampled four times. Three of the four measurements exceeded the PDWS for selenium up to 2 times. Another domestic well contained 0.11 mg/l of vanadium. (EPA has not established concentration limits for vanadium.) At both wells, sulfate concentrations exceeded the SDWS. In addition, samples from six of the seven monitoring wells exhibited increased concentrations of sulfates. The highest concentrations of selenium and vanadium that were observed in monitoring well samples were 0.03 (3 times

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the PDWS) and 30 mg/l, respectively. The high concentrations of selenium and vanadium were noticed in monitoring wells that were drilled directly through the disposal pits.

The Virginia State Water Control Board (SWCB) conducted the initial study at this site. The SWCB concluded that the quality of ground water immediately beneath and down-gradient from the site had been affected. Moreover, the SWCB stated that the water in the two domestic wells had elevated concentrations of selenium and vanadium because of the disposal of the fly ash. Dames & Moore was critical of the conclusions reached by the SWCB because of what they termed "significant data gaps." Dames & Moore cited a lack of background water quality information and a general lack of information on the well installation, sample collection procedures, and other possible sources of contamination, such as the York County landfill which is adjacent to one of the ash disposal areas. The two contaminated off-site domestic wells identified by the SWCB, however, were over 2,000 feet from the county landfill but within a couple of hundred feet from the ash disposal areas. Additionally, monitoring wells located between the landfill and the affected domestic wells did not register the same elevated concentrations of selenium. Residents in the area no longer rely on ground water for their drinking water.

- Pierce Site, Wallingford, Connecticut. Coal fly ash had been deposited at the Pierce Site since 1953. In 1978, the United States Geological Survey (U.S.G.S.) collected ground-water quality data from three on-site wells - one upgradient and two downgradient. The U.S.G.S. took samples from the wells on three days over a period of two months. One sample from one downgradient well showed a concentration of chromium that exceeded the PDWS by a multiple of 1.6. Concentrations of cadmium, manganese, zinc, and sulfate were higher in the downgradient wells than in the upgradient well.

According to Dames & Moore, there were not enough data at this site to state conclusively whether or not the ground water had been adversely affected by the fly ash pit. To determine potential damage to ground water quality, Dames & Moore stated that EPA recommends a minimum of three downgradient wells and one upgradient well. In this case, there were only two downgradient wells. Three samples over a period of two months were not considered sufficient because naturally occurring temporal changes in the area were believed to render comparisons invalid.

The Pierce disposal site is situated on a deposit of thick, stratified sediments composed of particles that

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range in size from clay to coarse sand. The disposal site is located within a few hundred feet of the Quinnipiac River, and the ground water flows from the site to the river, which diluted contaminants in the ground water. Although there are residences within a few blocks of the power plant, they do not use local ground water for drinking supplies.

- Michigan City Site, Michigan City, Indiana. The Michigan City site, situated on the shore of Lake Michigan, contained two fly ash disposal ponds. Ground-water flow at the site was towards Lake Michigan, facilitated by the porous sand that underlies the site. Twenty-one monitoring wells were installed at this site. Two of these were placed upgradient from the site outside the site boundaries; the remaining 19 wells were established within the boundaries of the facility and downgradient from the disposal areas.

Monitoring of the wells (which took place periodically over a one-year period) indicated that trace metals migrated from the disposal sites and that certain constituents had elevated ground-water concentrations. Arsenic and lead were observed in concentrations that exceeded their PDWS. Seven samples collected from three downgradient monitoring wells had arsenic concentrations that exceeded the standard -- up to 100 times the PDWS. All of the samples taken from the upgradient off-site monitoring wells contained arsenic at concentrations below the PDWS. Five of the downgradient monitoring wells contained lead concentrations which exceeded the PDWS, with the highest exceedance 7 times the PDWS. Three samples from the two upgradient monitoring wells also had lead concentrations in excess of the standard, with the highest exceedance 3 times the PDWS.

Dames & Moore concluded that effects on ground water appeared to be limited to areas within the facility boundaries because of attenuation mechanisms operative at the site -- absorption, dilution, precipitation, and a steel slurry wall installed between the disposal site and Lake Michigan. However, no downgradient monitoring wells were situated off-site. Based on the locations of the waste disposal sites and the monitoring wells, it appears that the ash ponds are responsible for arsenic concentration above the PDWS in the ground water within the site boundaries. Because high lead concentrations were observed in some of the upgradient background wells, it is impossible to state with certainty that the high lead concentrations in the ground water are attributable to the disposal sites. Dames and Moore noted that nearby residents do not use the ground water for their water supply.

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- Bailly Site, Dune Acres, Indiana. The Bailly site is located near the Indiana National Lakeshore on Lake Michigan in a highly industrialized area. Fly ash at this site has been slurried to interim settling ponds, which are periodically drained. The drained ash is then disposed in an on-site pit. Two aquifer units, designated Unit 1 and Unit 3, underlie the site. Unit 1 contains fine-to-medium sand and some gravel, while Unit 3 is composed of sand with overlying layers of varying amounts of sand, clay and gravel.

Ground-water samples from Unit 1 were collected from an upgradient well and from several wells downgradient from the ash settling ponds. Samples from Unit 3 were collected upgradient and from one well downgradient from the ash ponds. These wells were sampled at five-week intervals between September 1976 and May 1978.

In samples from Unit 1, arsenic, cadmium, fluoride, and lead occasionally exceeded the PDWS. Upgradient concentrations of arsenic never exceeded the PDWS, whereas the maximum downgradient concentration for arsenic was 4.6 times the PDWS. Downgradient on-site concentrations of cadmium exceeded the PDWS at one well by 25 times, while the maximum upgradient concentration of cadmium exceeded the PDWS by 22 times. One downgradient well measurement indicated lead concentrations that exceeded PDWS by 1.26 times.

All of the above-mentioned exceedances were observed in Unit 1. None of the samples from Unit 3 contained constituents at concentrations that exceeded the PDWS.

Aluminum, boron, iron, manganese, molybdenum, nickel, strontium, and zinc all increased in concentration downgradient from the disposal areas, though not in levels exceeding the SDWS.

Leachate from the ash disposal ponds is the most probable contributor to the increased concentrations of arsenic and lead observed in the aquifer samples taken from the on-site wells. Cadmium was the only constituent whose downgradient off-site concentration was observed to exceed the PDWS. However, because elevated cadmium concentrations were also found in samples taken from the background well, the elevated concentrations of cadmium may not have been caused by the leachate from the coal ash. Dames and Moore noted that ground water at this site flows away from the nearest residential area.

- Zullinger Quarry Fly Ash Disposal Site, Franklin County, Pennsylvania. The Zullinger quarry was situated in a limestone formation in south-central Pennsylvania. The

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quarry was excavated to 40 feet below the water table. Fly ash was deposited in the quarry from 1973 to 1980 with no attempt to dewater the quarry prior to placement of the fly ash.

The site operator, consultants, and the Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Resources (DER) have been independently involved in water quality investigations at the site. Initially, six monitoring wells were established onsite. Later, several existing off-site domestic wells were added to the sampling program. Two of the monitoring wells were installed upgradient to provide background constituent concentrations. The other monitoring wells, and the domestic wells in the sampling program, were downgradient from the fly ash deposited in the quarry.

Lead was found to exceed its PDWS by up to eight times in eight out of over 100 samples. Six of these eight exceedances occurred in two on-site monitoring wells, while the seventh (2.6 times PDWS) was found in an off-site domestic well. Another exceedance (1.5 times PDWS) was found in the background well.

Several constituents for which there are secondary drinking water standards were found in elevated concentrations downgradient from the ash disposal site. Sulfate concentrations increased dramatically during the first few years of quarry filling, then began to sharply decline in 1976 when the fly ash had filled the quarry. From 1976 until deactivation of the disposal site in 1980, the fly ash was deposited above the water table. Zinc and iron were also found in elevated concentrations. Elevated levels of sulfate, zinc, and iron are probably attributable to leachate from the fly ash, as are the lead levels in excess of the PDWS. Most of the trace metals appear to be attenuated onsite by the limestone formation.

- Conesville Site, Conesville, Ohio. Various types of coal combustion waste had been deposited at the Conesville site in central Ohio. The monitoring program at the Conesville site was established to determine the ability of an FGD sludge fixation process (Poz-O-Tec, a solid material produced by mixing FGD sludge with fly ash and lime) to stabilize and thus immobilize potential contaminants. The stabilized FGD sludge has been deposited next to a fly ash pond. Permeable sand and gravel underlie the Muskingum River flood plain on which the Conesville site is located.

A total of 34 monitoring wells were installed at the Conesville site. Two of the wells were situated upgradient from the disposal area to provide the

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necessary background water quality data. Two sets of water quality data were taken, the first between February 27 and April 12, 1979, and the second between December 4, 1979, and July 10, 1980.

Some samples from the first set of data contained constituents at concentrations that exceeded the PDWS. Lead concentrations exceeded the PDWS in two on-site wells by up to 3 times and three off-site wells by up to 2 times. The concentration of mercury found in one sample from an on-site well exceeded the PDWS by 1.4 times; however, this exceedance could not be attributed to the fly ash. One of the fourteen background measurements had the highest observed concentration of selenium, 6 times the PDWS. Thus, selenium appears to be leaching from indigenous sediments rather than from the FGD waste and fly ash deposited at the site. The first set of data also showed the SDWS constituents of calcium, magnesium, total dissolved solids, sulfate, and iron, had increased in those wells located on the site property and just across the property boundaries.

Measurements taken between December 1979 and July 1980 showed increases in calcium, magnesium, total dissolved solids, and sulfate relative to those measurements taken in the first data collection period. Concentrations in excess of the PDWS were found for selenium (several wells), arsenic (one sample), cadmium (four samples), and chromium (five samples). Two of the chromium exceedances were found in on-site wells, while three occurred in off-site wells, with concentrations ranging up to 16 times the PDWS on-site and 2 times the PDWS off-site. Background wells also had elevated levels of selenium. The single arsenic exceedance (2.4 times the PDWS) and all of the cadmium exceedances (up to 12 times the PDWS) were detected in on-site wells. In contrast to the first round of sampling, lead was not detected in concentrations greater than the PDWS. The only constituents that appear to be migrating offsite are lead and chromium. Based on the data collected, it appears there may be a temporal variation in the water quality at this site. Dames and Moore noted that the town of Conesville is downgradient from the site but on the other side of the river, which would tend to mitigate potential adverse impacts.

- Hunts Brook Watershed, Montville-Waterford, Connecticut
The electric utility hired a private contractor to transport and dispose of fly ash in three separate sites (Chesterfield-Oakdale, Moxley Hill, and Linda Sites) along three different tributaries to Hunts Brook. Disposal of fly ash in this area began in the mid 1960's and ended in 1969. The surface-water quality studies that took place in this area focused on pH, iron,

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sulfate, and total dissolved solids (TDS). No analyses were performed for any of the PDWS constituents. Upstream surface water samples were compared to downstream samples to determine if the surface water quality had been degraded at any of the sites.

At the Chesterfield-Oakdale site, concentrations of iron in the surface water increased from less than the SDWS to more than 100 times the SDWS between the upstream and downstream sampling points. Sulfate concentrations increased by over an order of magnitude, from 20 to 299 mg/l, (at 299 mg/l, still only 1.2 times the SDWS) between the upstream and downstream sampling positions, while TDS increased from less than the SDWS to 44 times the SDWS. At another sampling point approximately 1.2 miles downstream from the site, the measured parameters had all returned to levels close to the upstream values.

At the Moxley Hill Site, the pH and iron concentrations remained relatively constant between the upstream and downstream sampling points; median sulfate values increased, although not to levels exceeding the SDWS. The elevated concentrations of sulfate and TDS had been significantly attenuated at another point three-quarters of a mile downstream.

At the Linda Site, no upstream data were collected. It is therefore impossible to quantify the potential effects of fly ash deposition on the water quality.

5.3.3 Other Case Studies of the Environmental Impact of Coal Combustion By-Product Waste Disposal

This section presents a review of two independent case studies of ground-water contamination at utility disposal sites.

Cedarsauk Site, Southeastern Wisconsin

The Cedarsauk site is a fly ash landfill in southeastern Wisconsin. At the time of this study,²⁹ fly ash had been deposited at the site into an abandoned sand and gravel pit over a period of eight years. Part of the pit is in direct contact with an aquifer composed mainly of sand and gravel with some clay. This upper aquifer is approximately 15 to 20 meters thick with a permeability of 10^{-3}

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to 10^{-2} cm/sec. Soluble carbon aqueous material comprises about 35 percent of the aquifer. The upper sandy aquifer overlies another aquifer consisting of fractured dolomite-bedrock.

A water quality study of the area was undertaken in 1975. This study eventually included 35 monitoring wells and seven surface-water sampling sites. Twenty of the wells were placed upgradient of the site to provide background water quality information, while the remaining wells were positioned downgradient. Sampling was performed on a monthly basis. Most of the ground-water flow beneath the site surfaced in a marsh directly east of the ash disposal area.

The monitoring results showed that downgradient ground water had SDWS exceedances. Background levels of total dissolved solids (TDS) were below 500 mg/l, while the levels in the ground water downgradient from the disposal site exceeded 800 mg/l, or 1.6 times the SDWS. After eight years of disposal, the contaminant plume appeared to stabilize approximately 200 meters downgradient from the ash disposal site. The stabilization of the constituent plume appeared to be due to dilution and the ability of the materials in the aquifer to attenuate contaminants. Only iron, manganese, and zinc were found in detectable quantities in the downgradient off-site wells.

The maximum detected iron concentration was more than 33 times the SDWS, while the maximum manganese concentration reached 30 times the SDWS. Neither iron nor zinc could be detected 200 meters downgradient from the disposal site. Another contributor to ground-water contamination at this site was sulfate. Background concentrations of sulfate varied between 20 and 30 mg/l (well below

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the SDWS), while the concentrations of sulfate in the contaminant plume achieved levels approximately 3.4 times the SDWS. Other trace metals for which analyses were performed, such as copper, molybdenum, nickel, lead, and titanium, were not detected.

As the leachate contacted the sediments in the aquifer, it was neutralized from an initial pH value of 4.5 to around neutral pH levels (i.e., about 7.0). This change in pH probably caused the precipitation of many of the trace metals and other constituents in the leachate. In addition, adsorption reactions between the clay in the sediments and the constituents probably attenuated the leachate concentrations of many of the potential contaminants observed in the leachate.

Center Mine, Center, North Dakota

Fly ash at this site had been deposited in a mine pit and between mine ash piles. A study was conducted to determine the potential effects of FGD and fly ash disposal on ground water quality at the surface mining site.³⁰ This investigation used field monitoring and laboratory column leaching experiments in conjunction with geochemical computations. By collecting both field and laboratory data, the investigators hoped to test the applicability of laboratory column experiments to field situations. Roughly 150 wells were placed both in the vicinity of the waste disposal sites and in unaffected areas.

Ground-water concentrations were generally within drinking water standards in the background wells. However, selected constituents were higher than the drinking water standards. For instance, sulfate concentrations tended to exceed

5-66

the SDWS by a factor of 2 to 4. The maximum iron concentration was 4.3 times the SDWS. Manganese concentrations were all above the SDWS, varying from 0.06 to 2.75 mg/l, or 1.2 to 55 times the SDWS.

Samples collected from wells located adjacent to the FGD waste site indicated that none of the PDWS constituents exceeded the standards. For the SDWS constituents, molybdenum concentrations fluctuated between 0.070 and 4.850 mg/l, and sulfate concentrations reached a high of 9,521 mg/l, or 38 times the SDWS. (EPA has not established maximum concentration levels for molybdenum.)

Ground water in areas that appear to be affected by leachate from the fly ash disposal sites had sulfate concentrations ranging from 21.7 to 211 times the SDWS. Higher values were obtained immediately below recent deposits of fly ash, while lower values were observed at older sites or at greater distances from the disposal area. Arsenic and selenium concentrations in the ground water were as high as 0.613 mg/l (12 times the PDWS) and 0.8 mg/l (80 times the PDWS), respectively. The highest arsenic and selenium concentrations were associated with higher pH values. Ground-water pH values for samples in the area of the fly ash ranged from 6.95 to 12.1. (The Secondary Drinking Water Standard for pH is 6.5 to 8.5). Iron and manganese concentrations were also high in samples taken from around the fly ash disposal site. The maximum concentration of iron was 8.6 times the SDWS; the maximum concentration of manganese was 130 times the SDWS.

Leachates from the fly ash of western coals are often characterized by a high pH that tends to cause many potentially harmful constituents to be released. The pH-dependent solubility of many trace elements, as apparently

5-67

observed at this site, demonstrates the importance of neutral pH values that are conducive to contaminant attenuation.

5.3.4 Summary

The studies reviewed in this section indicate that constituents from coal-combustion waste disposal sites have been detected in both on-site and off-site ground and surface water. However, those constituents that did exceed the drinking water standards seldom exceeded these standards by more than ten times. Moreover, the total number of exceedances is quite small compared to the total number of monitoring wells and samples gathered. The contaminant exceedances that do occur appear to be correlated to some extent with acidic or alkaline pH levels. At fly ash disposal sites, pH values between 2 and 12 have been measured. High and low pH values can contribute to metal solubility in ground water.

There are two documented cases of coal combustion waste disposal sites causing significant harm to the environment. Drinking water wells around the Chisman Creek fly ash disposal site in Virginia (which was closed in 1974) were contaminated with high concentrations of vanadium and selenium. Concentrations of these elements at this site were also due to petroleum coke waste (a product of oil combustion, not coal combustion). The site has been placed on the CERCLA National Priority List. In 1967, a dike failed at a utility waste disposal site on the banks of the Clinch River in Virginia, causing waste to spill into the river. This accident caused substantial damage to the biotic life in the river.

5-68

5.4. FACTORS AFFECTING EXPOSURE AND RISK AT COAL COMBUSTION WASTE SITES

The previous sections analyzed the constituents of coal combustion waste leachates and the quality of the ground water and surface water surrounding disposal sites. However, this is only part of determining the potential dangers that the wastes pose to human health and the environment. Exposure potential, the degree to which populations could be expected to be exposed to potentially harmful constituents, must also be analyzed. Exposure potential is determined by a variety of factors. Hydrogeologic characteristics of a site will affect the migration potential of waste constituents. Proximity of sites to drinking water sources and to surface-water bodies will determine potential for exposure to populations using the water sources.

In order to address this issue of exposure, EPA collected a wide variety of data on a random sample of 100 coal-fired utility plants around the country. The sample was taken from the Utility Data Institute Power Statistics Database, which contains information on every coal-fired electric utility plant in the country. Most plants dispose of their waste on-site, and in these cases information was collected on the plant location given by the data base. If the plant disposed off-site, data were collected on that off-site location. EPA assumed that off-site disposal took place at the nearest municipal landfill, unless additional information indicated otherwise. Characteristics such as depth to ground water, hydraulic conductivity, distance to surface water, location of private and public drinking water systems, type of surrounding natural ecosystems, and location of human population were obtained from a wide variety of sources. This simple aggregation of the individual factors affecting exposure at coal combustion waste sites provides a qualitative perspective on

5-69

the potential risk that coal combustion waste sites pose, and is presented in Sections 5.4.1-5.4.3. Appendix F displays the data for each coal combustion waste site in the random sample.

5.4.1 Environmental Characteristics of Coal Combustion Waste Sites

Environmental characteristics of coal combustion utility waste sites will have a significant effect on the potential for the waste constituents to travel and reach receptor populations. Key environmental characteristics are:

- Distance to surface water - The distance between a coal combustion waste disposal site and the nearest surface water body. Proximity to surface water would decrease the possible health effects of ground-water contamination due to the fact that there would be fewer opportunities for drinking water intakes before the ground water reached the surface water body; once the plume reached the surface water, contamination would be diluted. However, proximity to surface water would possibly increase danger to aquatic life because less dilution of the contaminant plume would occur before the plume reached the surface water body.
- Flow of surface water - A high surface water flow will increase the dilution rate of coal combustion constituents that may enter the surface water, thereby reducing concentrations in the surface water.
- Depth to ground water - The distance from ground level to the water table. A larger depth to ground water will increase the time it takes for waste leachates to reach the aquifer; it also allows more dispersion of the leachate before it reaches the aquifer so that once the leachate reached the aquifer, concentrations of metals would be decreased.
- Hydraulic conductivity - This factor is an indication of the rate at which water travels through the aquifer. A high hydraulic conductivity indicates that constituents will travel quickly through the ground water and possibly more readily reach drinking water wells, although high conductivity also indicates a more rapid dilution of constituent concentration.

5-70

- Net recharge - This factor is a measure of net precipitation of a site after evapotranspiration and estimated runoff is subtracted. Recharge is calculated in order to determine the amount of rainfall annually absorbed by the soil. A high net recharge indicates a short period of time for contaminants to travel through the ground to the aquifer, but will also indicate a higher potential for dilution.
- Ground-water hardness - This factor is a measure of the parts per million (ppm) of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) in the aquifer. Ground water with over 240 ppm of CaCO_3 is typically treated when used as a public drinking water supply. This treatment of the hard ground water has an indirect mitigative effect on exposure because treatment of the ground water will tend to remove contamination from other sources.

To conduct this exposure analysis, environmental data on the 100 randomly selected coal combustion waste sites were gathered using a number of sources. These data were then aggregated in order to present an overview of the environmental characteristics that contribute to exposure. The data collected on the sample of coal combustion waste sites were compared to information presented in a study by EnviroSphere for the Electric Power Research Institute.³¹ The EnviroSphere report gave detailed information on the hydrogeologic settings of 450 operating utility plants. The information provided by the exposure analysis on the sample of 100 plants corresponded fairly closely with the settings described in the EnviroSphere report.

The following sections summarize the data that were collected and the relationship of the various characteristics to potential exposure.

5.4.1.1 Distance to Surface Water and Surface-Water Flow

The proximity of a waste site to surface water affects exposure potential in several ways. If the site is very near a surface-water body, there is less

5-71

opportunity for humans to use contaminated ground water as a source of drinking water. However, sites that are close to surface water can more easily contaminate the surface-water body, although waste constituents will be more quickly diluted if the flow of the surface water is high.

Distance to the nearest surface-water body, e.g., creek, river, lake, or swamp, was determined from measurements obtained using United States Geologic Survey (U.S.G.S.) maps. The sample of coal combustion waste sites was located on 7-1/2 or 15 minute maps, and the distance between the site and nearest surface water body was calculated.

When the boundaries of the plant or waste site were marked on the maps, the reference point was the downgradient boundary of the site. If the boundaries were not marked, the latitude and longitude points for the sites provided by the Utility Data Institute Power Statistics Database were used.

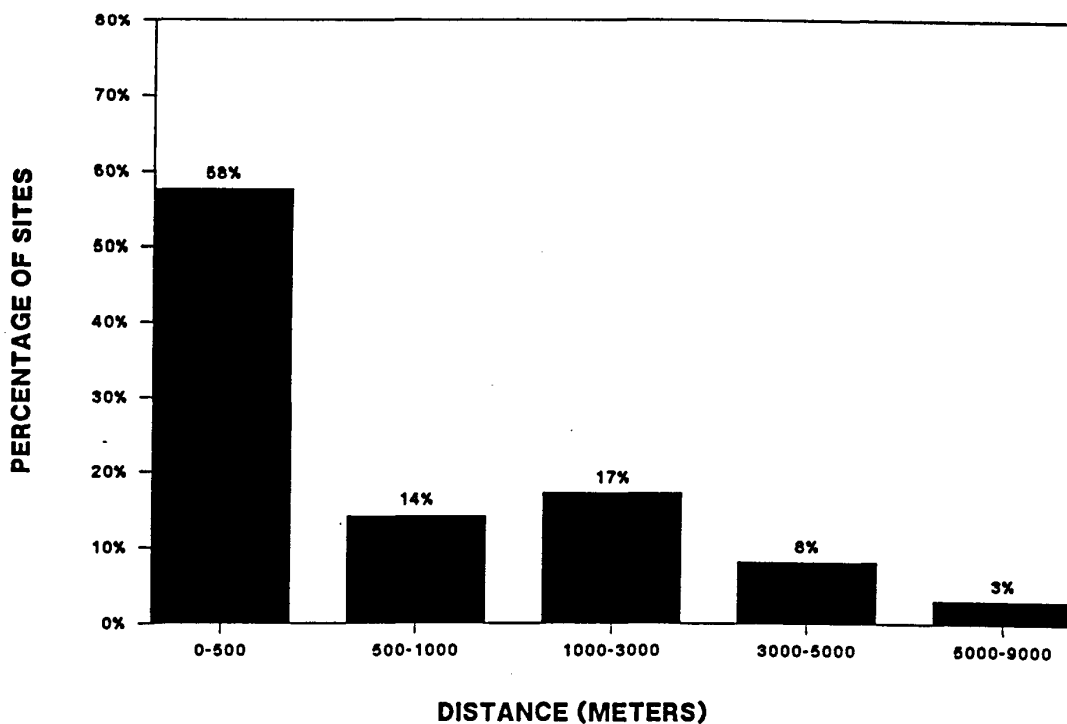
The average distance from the sample of coal-burning waste sites to surface-water body is 1279 meters. Distances range from 10 to 18,000 meters. Over 50 percent of the disposal sites are within 500 meters of surface water; more than 70 percent are within 1,000 meters of surface water. Exhibit 5-17 provides the number and percentage of sites within specified distances of surface water.

Since most sites are located somewhat near surface-water bodies, the potential for human exposure to contaminated ground water seems to be low. The proximity of the sites to surface water could, however, pose a threat to aquatic life and to humans using the surface water if contaminants are entering

5-72

EXHIBIT 5-17

DISTANCE OF COAL COMBUSTION WASTE SITES TO SURFACE WATER



SOURCE: ICF Inc, based on USGS data

5-73

the surface water. The concentration in surface water will be less, however, if the surface-water body close to the site has a high flow.

Flow data on surface-water bodies near the sample of 100 sites were obtained from U.S.G.S. data. Flow is expressed in terms of cubic feet per second (cfs), and given for minimum and maximum average flow for one-month periods. In order to obtain a conservative estimate of exposure (i.e., one that does not understate exposure) this report used estimates for the month with the minimum monthly flow. The results are presented in Exhibit 5-18.

Exhibit 5-18 shows that 19 percent of the sites have a flow of zero. A zero flow generally indicates that the body of water is a lake, swamp, or marsh that does not have any continual flow of water, although this category could include a seasonal stream. For surface-water bodies with zero flow, dilution of potential contamination would occur because of the volume of water in the surface-water body, but there would not be any additional dilution as water flowed away from the source of contamination. Forty-one percent of the surface-water bodies have a flow of 1-1000 cubic feet per second, 21 percent have a flow of 1,000-10,000 cfs, and 18 percent have a flow of over 10,000 cfs.

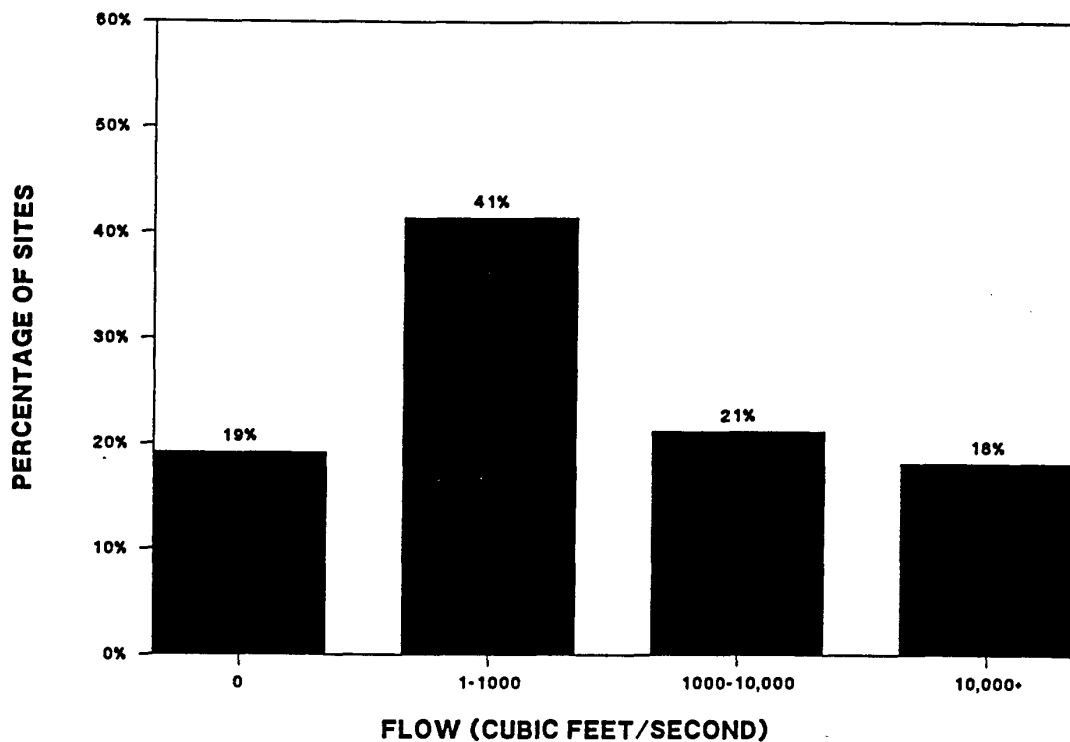
5.4.1.2 Hydrogeologic Measurements

The hydrogeologic measurements of depth to ground water, hydraulic conductivity, and net recharge were determined through the use of information provided by the DRASTIC system. The DRASTIC system, developed by the National Well Water Association, categorizes aquifers on the basis of geographic region and subregion. Each site was located on a 7 1/2 or 15 minute U.S.G.S. map that

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EXHIBIT 5-18

FLOW OF NEAREST SURFACE-WATER BODY



SOURCE: ICF Inc, based on USGS data

5-75

was then compared with a map on which the 11 major DRASTIC regions had been outlined. The topography and geology of the sites, which were determined from looking at the U.S.G.S. maps, were assessed in order to further classify the sites into DRASTIC subregions. Subregions are defined by hydrogeologic characteristics and vary in size from a few acres to hundreds of square miles. Measurements for depth to ground water, hydraulic conductivity, and net recharge of the sites were taken largely from A Standardized System for Evaluating Ground-water Pollution Potential Using Hydrogeologic Settings, by the National Well Water Association, which presents a range of values for each of these hydrogeologic properties for each subregion.³² The ranges were compared with characteristics that could be observed by studying U.S.G.S. maps, and, when necessary, they were modified accordingly.

Depth to Ground Water

A small depth to ground water indicates a higher potential for waste constituents to reach the ground water at harmful concentrations than if the distance to ground water were greater, thereby increasing the chance of ground-water contamination. Depth to ground water was generally based on DRASTIC region and subregion, but was modified when the topography or site characteristics indicated a depth different from that provided by the DRASTIC system. For example, if the DRASTIC subregion indicated that there was a high depth to ground water range, but a particular site was located very near a surface-water body, the Agency used a smaller depth to ground water than the DRASTIC range indicated.

5-76

Exhibit 5-19 provides the number and percentage of sites within each range of depth to ground water. Depth to ground water is calculated in feet and based on 10 ranges. In over 80 percent of the sites depth to ground water is less than 30 feet, indicating a reasonably high potential that leachate from the disposal site would reach the ground water.

Hydraulic Conductivity

Hydraulic conductivity is an indication of the ease with which a constituent may be transported through the ground water. Conductivity is also based on the site's DRASTIC region and subregion, and is measured in gallons per day per square foot and grouped into six ranges.

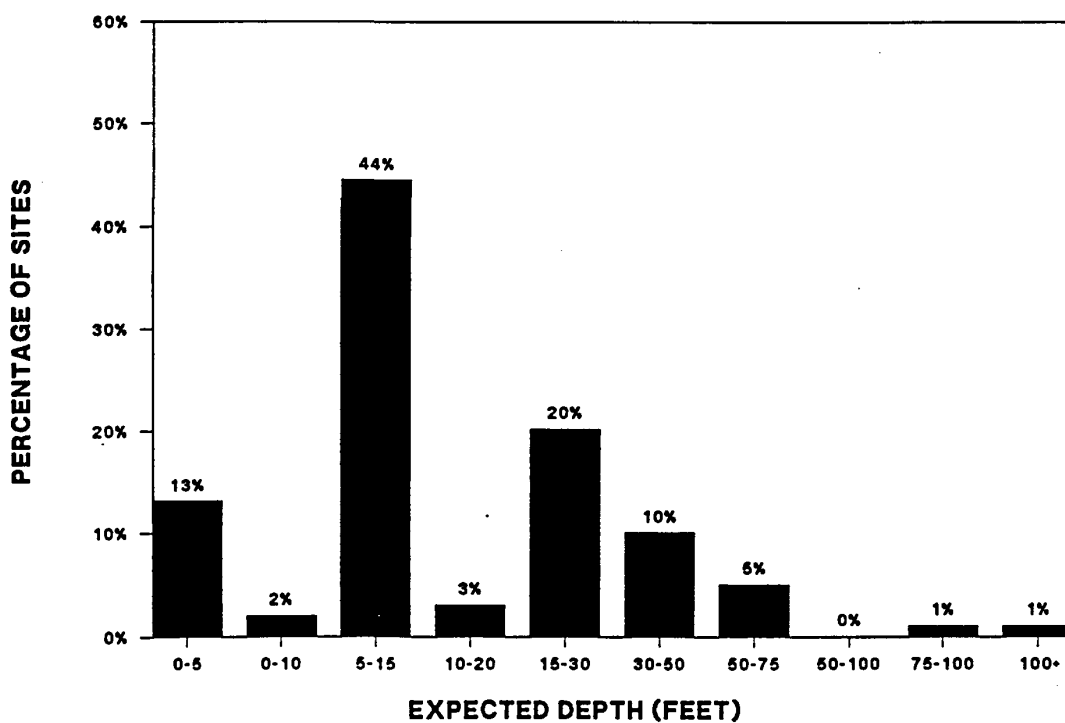
Hydraulic conductivity is one of the factors used to calculate ground-water velocity, or volumetric flow of the water table. Velocity has a direct bearing on the degree to which leachate constituents are diluted once they reach the ground water and travel to a point of exposure (i.e., human drinking water source). High ground-water conductivity signifies high velocity and therefore a high dilution potential.

Exhibit 5-20 provides the number and percentage of sites falling into each hydraulic conductivity range. Thirty-three percent of the sites show a hydraulic conductivity of 700-1,000 gallons per day per square foot; 27 percent have a conductivity of 1,000-2,000 gallons per day per square foot. There is a wide spread of conductivity values -- indicating hydrogeologic diversity among sites.

5-77

EXHIBIT 5-19

DEPTH TO GROUND WATER
AT COAL COMBUSTION WASTE SITES

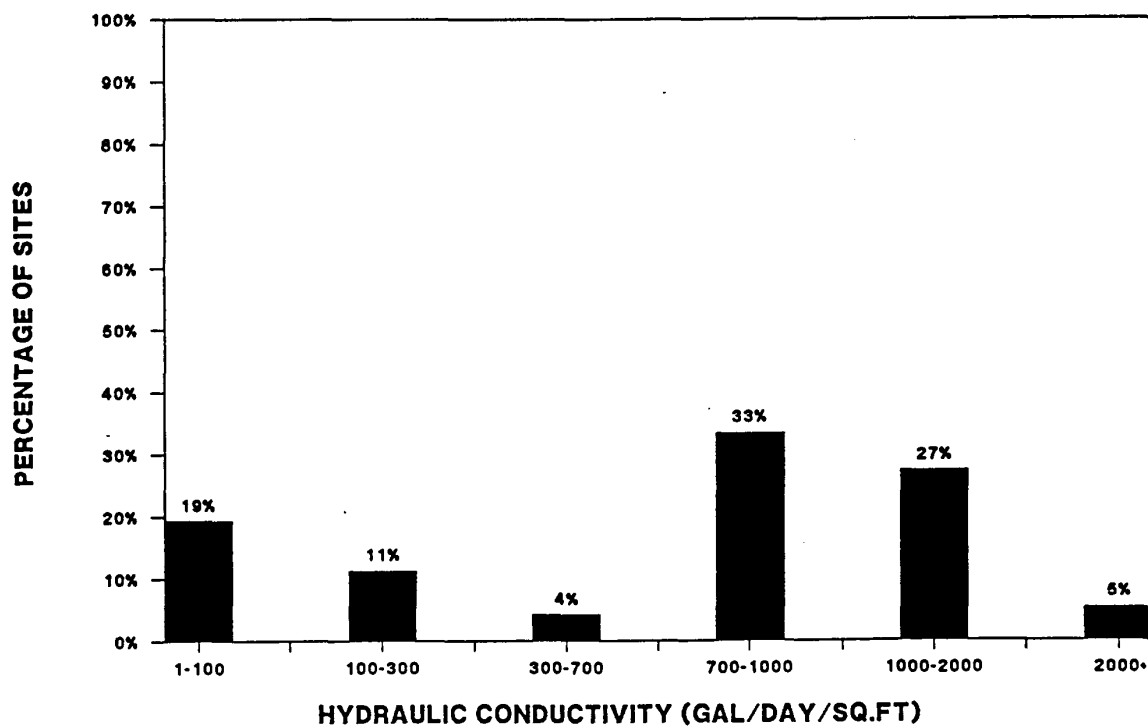


SOURCE: ICF Inc, based on DRASTIC

5-78

EXHIBIT 5-20

HYDRAULIC CONDUCTIVITY
AT COAL COMBUSTION WASTE SITES



SOURCE: ICF Inc, based on DRASTIC data

5-79

While ground-water velocity gives an indication of how fast contamination may travel in the ground water, contaminants do not move at the same velocity as the ground water. This is because of basic interactions between contaminants and soil that retard the movement of the contaminants. There are three different mechanisms that affect the retardation of contaminant movement -- exchange on soil particle sites (ion exchange), adsorption onto soil particle surfaces, and precipitation. The exchange and adsorption mechanisms will retard the movement of contaminants but will not eliminate the movement of all contaminants due to limited soil attenuation capacity.

As with the diversity among sites in terms of hydraulic conductivity and ground-water velocity, the various attenuation mechanisms differ among sites. To determine the attenuation potential at a site requires detailed data inputs on water chemistry on a site-specific basis.

Net Recharge

Net recharge indicates how much water is annually absorbed into the ground. It is measured by subtracting evapotranspiration (the amount of rainfall that evaporates and transpires from plant surfaces) and estimated runoff from total precipitation at a site. It affects exposure potential in a number of ways. Low recharge will result in smaller volumes of more concentrated leachate, but if the aquifer is deep and/or has a high velocity, it will quickly dilute the leachate. High recharge produces more leachate, but may also indicate that the area has higher ground-water flow.

5-80

Exhibit 5-21 shows the number and percentage of sites that fall into each range. Recharge is measured in inches and is grouped into five ranges. Although a wide variety of net recharge ranges is represented by the sample, the recharge of sites generally falls into the higher ranges of 4-7 inches, 7-10 inches, and over 10 inches. For example, more than 80 percent of the sites have a net recharge of over 4 inches and over 50 percent have a recharge of over 7 inches. This implies that leachate constituents will be more quickly carried to the water table but the higher recharge rate will also result in greater dilution of the leachate.

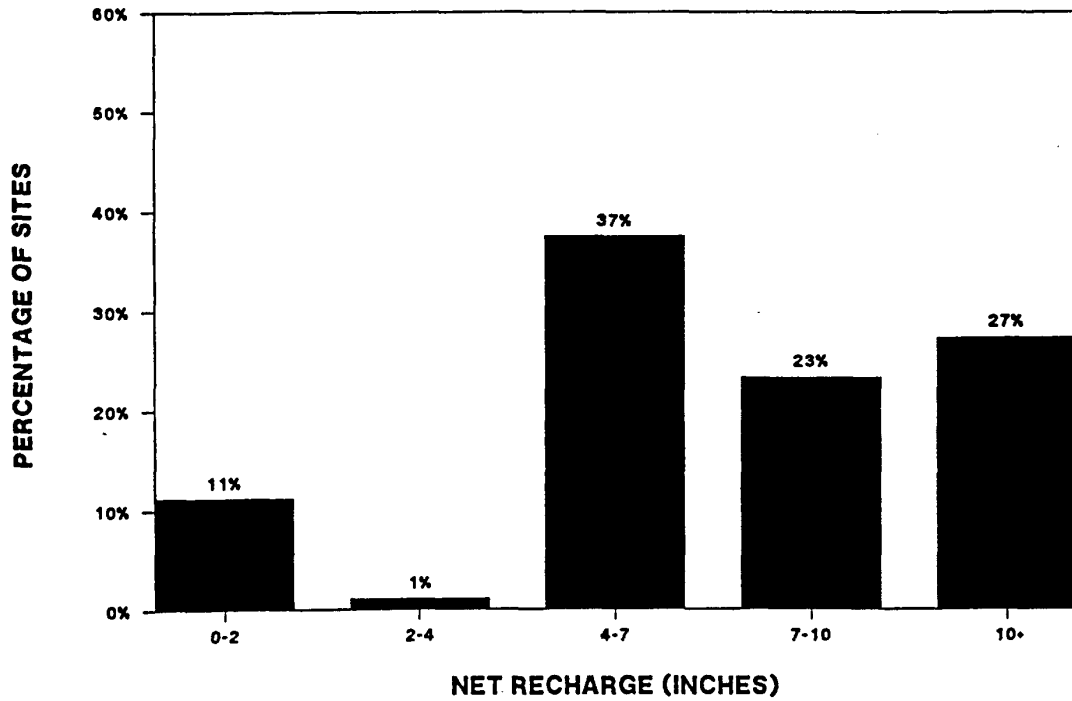
Ground-water Hardness

The hardness of the ground water near coal combustion waste sites will have an effect on potential exposure through drinking water since excessive hardness is typically treated in a public drinking water system. Treatment would lessen the exposure potential to humans from contaminants in the ground water from other sources (such as coal combustion wastes). Measurements for ground-water hardness were obtained by locating the sites on maps provided in Ground-water Contamination in the United States (Pye, Patrick, and Quarles).³³

As shown in Exhibit 5-22, ground-water hardness is measured in parts per million (ppm) of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) and grouped into five ranges. Ground water with a hardness of over 240 ppm of calcium carbonate is typically treated if used in a public drinking water system. In this sample, 45 percent of the sites show ground-water hardness in this range. Ground water with a hardness of 180-240 ppm of calcium carbonate may also be treated, although

5-81

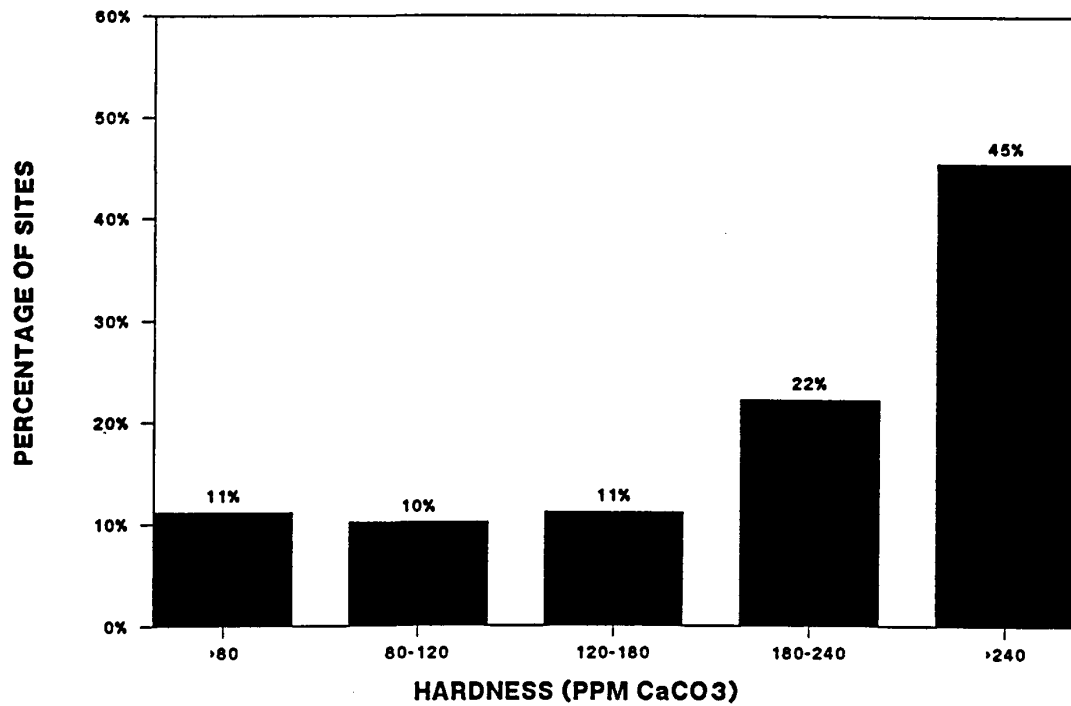
EXHIBIT 5-21
NET RECHARGE
AT COAL COMBUSTION WASTE SITES



SOURCE: ICF Inc, based on DRASTIC

5-82

EXHIBIT 5-22
GROUND-WATER HARDNESS
AT COAL COMBUSTION WASTE SITES



SOURCE: ICF Inc, based on Pye, et al, Groundwater Contamination in U.S.

5-83

treatment is much less likely. An additional 22 percent fall in the 180-240 ppm range.

The high levels of calcium carbonate found in the ground water near coal combustion waste disposal sites suggest that if a drinking water supply is in the vicinity, the water would often require treatment before being used. Therefore, contamination that might exist in the drinking water from other sources would be mitigated due to the treatment process since trace constituents tend to be removed during the treatment process.

5.4.2 Population Characteristics of Coal Combustion Waste Sites

Environmental characteristics, such as distance and flow of surface water and hydrogeologic measurements, are only one part of the analysis of exposure potential. Opportunities for human exposure to coal combustion waste constituents depend in part on the proximity of coal combustion waste disposal sites to human populations and to human drinking water supplies. Census data (1980) provide information about the number of people living within specified distances from the coal combustion waste sites. This information is obtained through the CENBAT program, part of the Graphic Exposure Modeling System developed by EPA's Office of Solid Waste. The Federal Reporting Data System (FRDS) data base, developed by EPA's Office of Drinking Water, provides estimates of the number of public water supply systems and the size of the populations using them.

5-84

5.4.2.1 Proximity of Sites to Human Populations

CENBAT provides information on the number of people living within specified distances around designated locations. The sites were defined by latitude and longitude coordinates. Populations were analyzed for areas within 1-, 2-, 3-, 4-, and 5-kilometer radii of the waste disposal sites.

Exhibit 5-23 shows the distribution of population within one kilometer of the waste disposal sites. The CENBAT results show that most sites, 71 percent, do not have any population within a one-kilometer radius. Overall, the population range within a one-kilometer radius is 0 - 3708 people, with an average of 359 people.

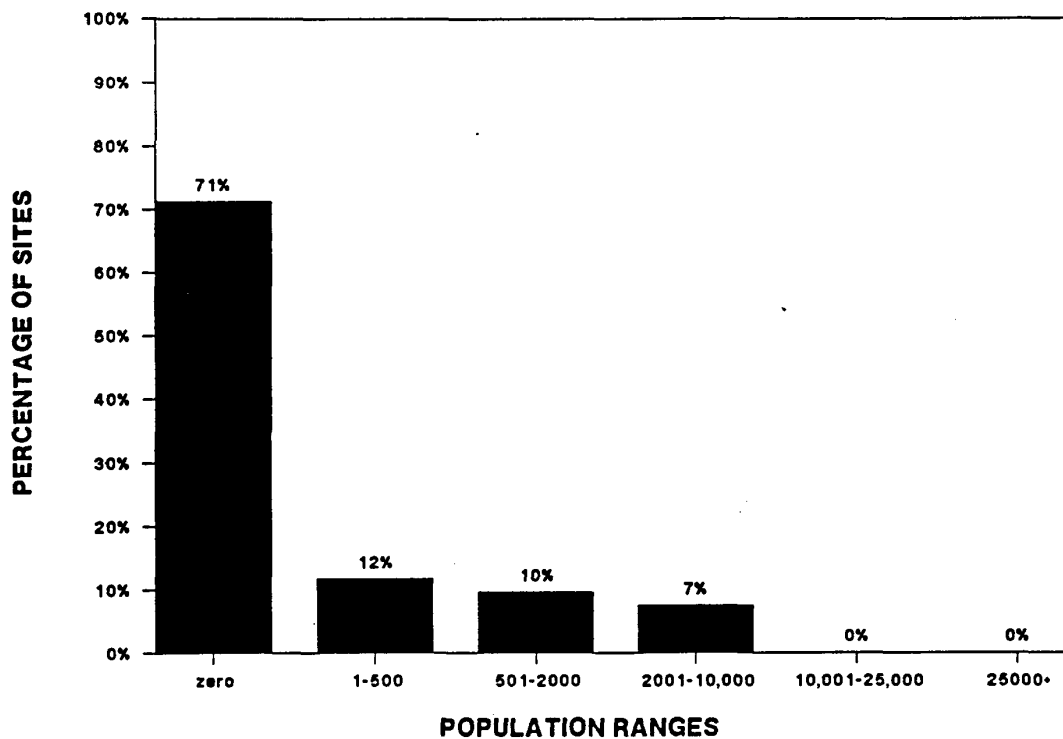
Exhibit 5-24 shows the population characteristics for the sample of coal combustion waste sites at a three-kilometer radius. When the search distance is increased to three kilometers, the percentage of sites that have no people within a three-kilometer radius decreases to 32 percent. Average population within three kilometers is 3,737, and the range is 0 - 35,633 people. There is a large degree of diversity of populations at this distance. For example, while 32 percent of the sites have zero population, the same percentage has populations over 2,000.

Exhibit 5-25 shows the distribution of populations within a five-kilometer radius. Only 10 percent of the sites do not have any population living within this distance. The average population is 12,128 people, with a range from 0 to 123,160. The diversity among coal combustion waste disposal sites is even more apparent at this distance. While 20 percent of the sites have populations

5-85

EXHIBIT 5-23

POPULATIONS WITHIN ONE KILOMETER OF WASTE SITES

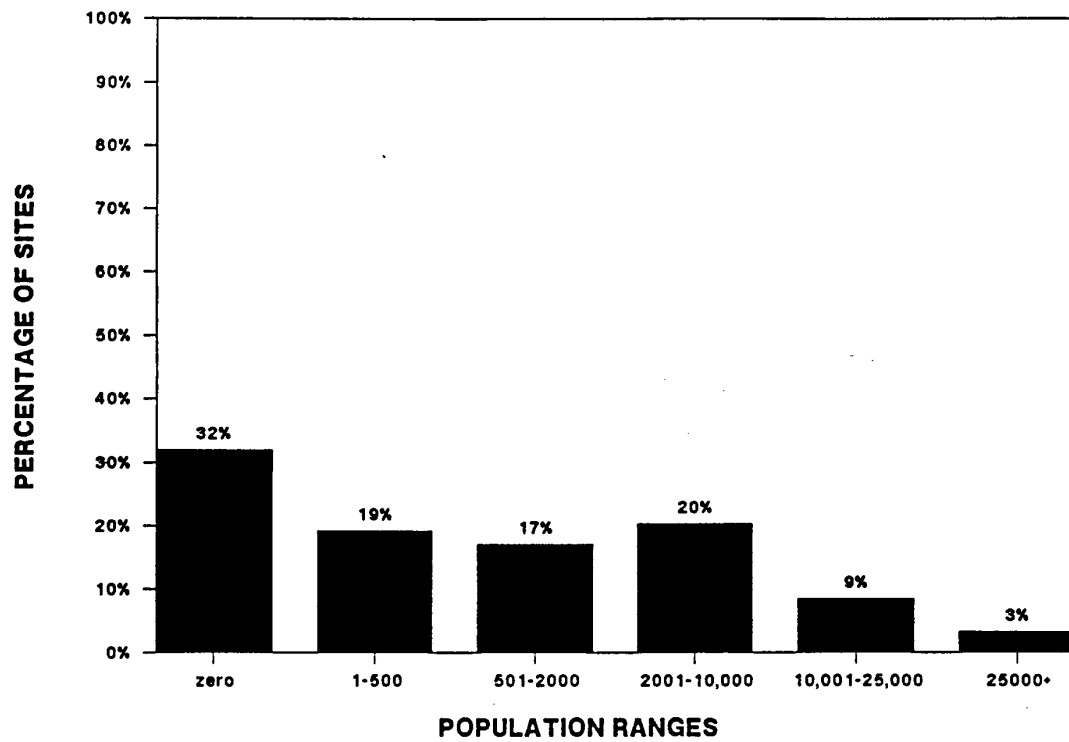


SOURCE: ICF Inc, based on CENBAT data

5-86

EXHIBIT 5-24

POPULATIONS WITHIN THREE KILOMETERS OF WASTE SITES

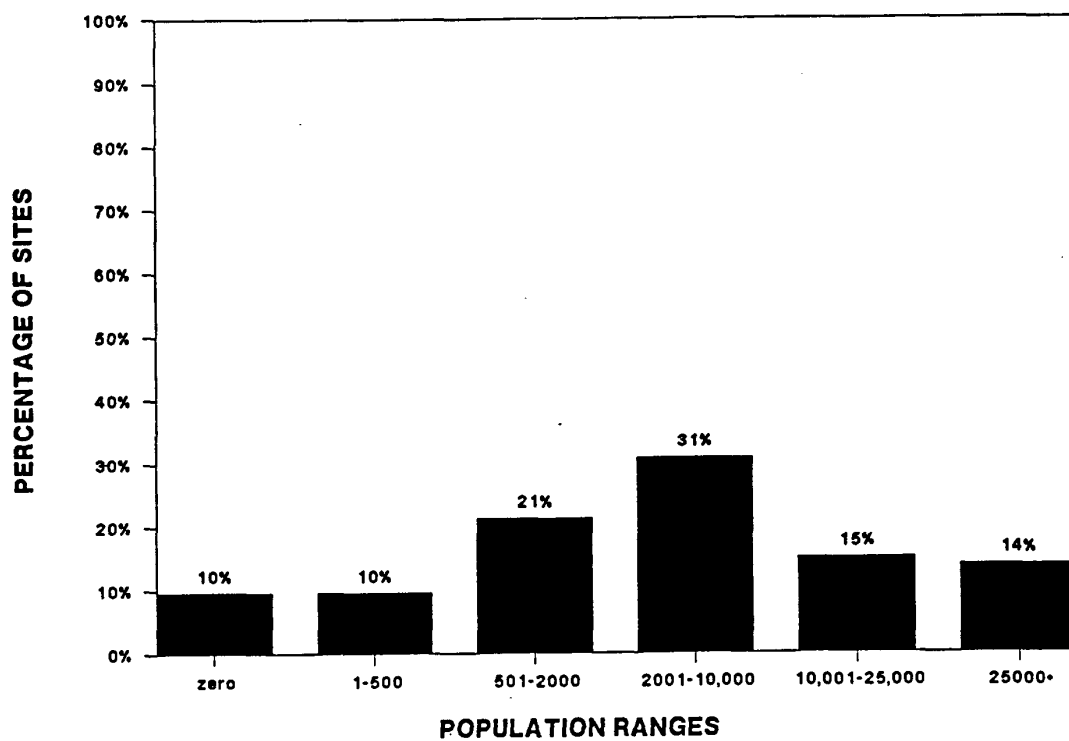


SOURCE: ICF Inc., based on CENBAT data

5-87

EXHIBIT 5-25

POPULATIONS WITHIN FIVE KILOMETERS OF WASTE SITES



SOURCE: ICF Inc., based on CENBAT

5-88

within a five-kilometer radius of fewer than 500 persons, 29 percent have populations over 10,000.

The CENBAT results indicate that density increases on average with distance from the disposal site. Many waste sites appear to be located on the outskirts of populated areas, with fairly low population immediately adjacent to the site, but with significant populations within a five-kilometer radius.

5.4.2.2 Proximity of Sites to Public Drinking Water Systems

If coal combustion waste sites are close to public drinking water systems, there may be potential for human exposure through drinking water supplies. The location of public water supplies was determined through the use of the Federal Reporting Data System (FRDS), developed by EPA's Office of Drinking Water.

The FRDS data base provides the number of public water supply systems located within specified distances from a site and the populations using the systems. It should be noted that the FRDS data base locates water systems based on the centroid of the zip code of the mailing address of each utility and that the actual location of the intake or well may be different. This can cause some inaccuracy in the calculation of the distance and location of public drinking water supplies in relation to the waste site. In order to remedy potential inaccuracies and omissions, the locations of public water systems that appeared on topographical maps but were not reported by FRDS are also recorded.

5-89

Exhibit 5-26 shows the population served by public water systems located in the downgradient plume from the sites and within a five-kilometer radius. The exhibit also shows how many sites have no public water systems within a five-kilometer radius. Sixty-six percent of the sites have no public water systems within a five-kilometer radius. Fifteen percent of coal combustion sites have public water systems located within a five-kilometer distance and had systems which served over 5,000 people, and 19 percent have public water systems that serve fewer than 5,000 people.

The population data indicate that while there are often quite large populations in the vicinity of coal combustion waste sites, only 34 percent of the sites have public drinking water systems downgradient from the site.

5.4.3 Ecologic Characteristics of Coal Combustion Waste Sites

Ecological data on endangered, threatened, or unique plants and animals is available through state Heritage Programs. The Nature Conservancy established the Heritage Programs, which now usually function as offices of state governments. The Heritage Programs develop and maintain data bases that describe jeopardized species and rare ecosystems within each state. It should be noted that there can be substantial variation in the completeness of data available from different states; some state Heritage Programs are fairly new, and basic data collection is still in its preliminary stages.

While it may not currently be possible to quantitatively model risk to ecosystems from coal combustion waste, the information provided by the Heritage Programs can indicate whether there are any jeopardized species near a specific

5-90

EXHIBIT 5-26

POPULATIONS SERVED BY PUBLIC WATER SYSTEMS NEAR WASTE SITES

